

PART II.

*Thomas & Andrew's* SECOND EDITION.



NOAH WEBSTER, JUN. ESQ.

A

GRAMMATICAL INSTITUTE  
OF THE  
ENGLISH LANGUAGE ;  
COMPRISING AN EASY, CONCISE AND SYSTEMATIC  
METHOD of EDUCATION.

Designed for the USE of ENGLISH SCHOOLS in AMERICA.  
IN THREE PARTS.

PART SECOND.

CONTAINING A PLAIN AND COMPREHENSIVE

GRAMMAR,

Grounded on the true PRINCIPLES and IDIOMS of the  
LANGUAGE.

---

BY NOAH WEBSTER, JUN. ESQUIRE.  
AUTHOR of "DISSERTATIONS on the ENGLISH LANGUAGE,"  
"COLLECTION of ESSAYS and FUGITIVE WRITINGS," &c.

---

*Thomas and Andrews's* SECOND EDITION.  
With many CORRECTIONS and IMPROVEMENTS, by the AUTHOR.

---

PRINTED AT BOSTON,  
BY ISAIAH THOMAS AND EBENEZER T. ANDREWS,  
AT FAUST'S STATUE, No. 45, NEWBURY STREET.  
Sold, Wholesale and Retail, at their Bookstore; by said THOMAS at his  
Bookstore in Worcester, and by the Booksellers in Town and Country.  
MDCCXCIL.

## *Advertisement.*

AS this work is designed for general use, the most necessary rules and definitions are given in the text by way of question and answer. These are all that a learner need burden his memory with, till he has made some proficiency in Grammar. The NOTES and APPENDIX will be useful for those who wish to become more accurately acquainted with the principles and idioms of the language.



DISTRICT of MASSACHUSETTS, *to wit.*

BE it remembered, That on the Seventh day of October, in the Fifteenth year of the Independence of the United States of America, ISAIAH THOMAS and EBENEZER T. ANDREWS, of said district, have deposited in this Office, the title of a Book, the right whereof, in Rhode Island, Massachusetts, and New Hampshire, they claim as Proprietors, in three Parts, in the words following, *to wit*, "The AMERICAN SPELLING BOOK, containing an Easy Standard of Pronunciation, being the First Part of a Grammatical Institute of the English Language." And Part the Second, containing, "A plain and comprehensive GRAMMAR, grounded on the true principles and idioms of the Language." And Part the Third, containing, "An AMERICAN SELECTION of LESSONS in READING and SPEAKING, calculated to improve the minds and refine the taste of Youth." "By NOAH WEBSTER, jun. Esquire, Author of Dissertations on the English Language." In conformity to the ACT of Congress of the United States, entitled, "An ACT for the encouragement of learning, by securing the copies of Maps, Charts, and Books, to the Authors and Proprietors of such copies, during the times therein mentioned."

N. GOODALE, Clerk of the District Court  
of Massachusetts District.

Boston, October 7th, 1790.

## P R E F A C E.

---

THE design of this part of the INSTITUTE is, to furnish schools with a collection of rules, or general principles of English Grammar. Within a few years past, many excellent treatises upon this subject have appeared in Great Britain, each of which has some particular merit, and perhaps each may be liable to some exception.

It is the business of grammar to inform the student, not how a language might have been originally constructed, but how it is constructed. Grammarians are too apt to condemn particular phrases in a language, because they happen not to coincide strictly with certain philosophical principles: But we should reflect, that languages are not framed by philosophers. On the contrary, they are spoken long before they are written; and spoken by barbarous nations, for many ages before any improvements are made in science. Hence anomalous phrases creep into a language in its infancy; and become established idioms, in its most refined state. On this principle we admit these expressions, a few weeks, a great many men, you are, applied to an individual; this news is favorable, and many other expressions in our language. On the same principle, neuter plural nouns, in the Greek tongue, were joined to verbs in the singular number. This is my reason for admitting some phrases as good English, which the most respectable writers on this subject have condemned as ungrammatical.

With respect to some points, I acknowledge I have changed my opinion, since the publication of the first edition. This change has been produced by a more laborious and critical investigation of the language, particularly in ancient authors; by comparing our translation of the New Testament with the original; and by consulting the best English writers of the last and present century.

The language seems not yet to be ascertained. When a Lawyer, an Abt, and a Priest differ from each other in

opinion, the curious inquirer has no resource, but to look for satisfaction in the state of the language itself, as it has been exhibited in the best writers, and in general practice. This has been my endeavor, and I have been obliged to differ, in some respects, from the most approved grammarians. The reasons and authorities on which my opinions are founded, are too numerous to be inserted in this abridgement; most of them may be found in my "Dissertations on the English Language."

I have been so often led into mistakes by the opinions of men, eminent for their literary abilities, that I am scrupulous of embracing any theory, till I have made it a subject of critical examination. I adopt the opinion of Montesquieu—"that nothing retards the progress of the sciences more, than a bad performance of a celebrated author."—And I am satisfied that the best of our trans-atlantic English grammars, are inaccurate or defective.

Our verbs and auxiliaries, the most difficult article in the study of our language, are here arranged in a manner entirely new. The Latin division of tenses, which is commonly followed, appears to me very arbitrary in our language, and rather calculated to mislead the learner, than to give him clear ideas of our verbs. My division is also arbitrary, but I must think it more eligible than any that has come to my knowledge. It has been found by experiment, that the language cannot be parsed on the principles of any English grammar that has hitherto appeared in America; and should this be true hereafter, I shall neither be surprised nor mortified. I can only say, that I have attempted to simplify a very complex subject, and shall always feel indebted to the man who shall suggest any improvements.

HARTEORD, August 28, 1790.

I NO 61

"Rien ne recule plus le progres des connoissances, qu'un mauvais ouvrage d'un auteur celebre;" And he assigns the reason "parcequ' ayant d'instruire, il faut detromper."



A PLAIN AND COMPREHENSIVE  
G R A M M A R.

—  
Of G R A M M A R.

*W*HAT is Grammar?

Grammar is the art of communicating thoughts by words with propriety and dispatch.

*What is the use of English Grammar?*  
To teach the true principles and idioms\* of the English Language.

*How may language be divided?*

Into the written and spoken language.

*Explain the difference.*

The written language is presented to the eye, as in books, and consists of certain letters or combinations of visible marks, which, by custom, stand for ideas or notions. The spoken language is addressed to the ear, and consists of certain sounds, either simple or combined, which, by custom, convey ideas or notions.†

*In what order does the formation of sentences proceed?*  
Letters are the elements or component parts of language—these form syllables—syllables form words—and words form sentences.‡

*How may words be divided?*

Into primitive and compound.

*What*

\* Modes of speaking peculiar to the language.

† The language of the passions and emotions is not the subject of grammar.

‡ Letters and syllables are the subject of the first part of the Institute.

*What is a primitive word?*

A word that cannot be separated into parts, each of which shall retain any sense ; as, *man, hope, good, bless.*

*What is a compound word?*

A primitive word with the addition of a syllable or syllables ; as, *man-ly, hope-less, goodness, blessing.*\*

*What is the rule for spelling compound words?*

In general, the primitive must be kept entire ; as, *turn-ed, book-ish.* But to this rule there are some exceptions.

1. When the primitive ends with a vowel, and the word added begins with a vowel, the vowel of the primitive is dropped ; as, *fame, famous; dance, dancing.* But *e* must not be dropped after *c* and *g*, before *able* ; as, *serviceable.*

Before a consonant, *e* is not dropped ; as, *name, name-less.*†

2. When the primitive ends in *y*, this letter is changed into *i* in the derivative ; as, *holy, holiness.* Except before *i*, as, *deny, denying.*

3. When an accented consonant ends a primitive, the consonant is usually doubled in the derivative ; as, *pen, pen-ned.*‡

*Into how many classes may words be distributed?*

Six : Nouns, Articles, Pronouns, Adjectives, Verbs, Abbreviations or Particles.§

### NOUN.

\* I consider all particles and terminations as words ; for it is certain that most of them were originally words, and significant. This theory destroys the difference between derivatives and compound words.

† This rule is arbitrary ; if *e* is a mark of the prolonged sound of a foregoing vowel in *namely*, it should be retained for the same purpose in *famous.*

‡ This practice is very needless ; *pen-ned* and *pen-ed* being pronounced alike.

§ This distribution of words is new, and requires illustration ; but this abridgement is not the place to treat the subject at large. I will observe in general, that the words which are denominated adverbs, conjunctions, and prepositions, are formed

the

NOUN.

*Explain the Noun.*

A noun is the name of any thing that exists, or that conveys an idea, without the help of any other word ; as, *pen, paper, power, faith.*\*

*What is the usual division of nouns ?*

*Into proper and common.*

*What is the difference ?*

A proper noun is the name of a thing, when there is but one ; as *Philadelphia, Mississippi.* A common noun is the name of a sort or species of things ; as, *man, book,*

*In what manner do the English ascertain individuals with common names ?*

By the use of two little words *a* and *the*, called *articles.*

*Explain the use of each.*

The article *a*, which, before a vowel, becomes *an*, † is placed before a noun to confine its signification to an individual thing, but it does not show which of the kind is meant ; as *a book.* ‡ *A* is called the *indefinite article.*

*The*

the last in the progress of language. They are articles of refinement, rather than of necessity. By recurring to the Saxon and Gothic originals, most of the English particles are found to be abbreviations or combinations of nouns, verbs or adjectives. Indeed most adjectives are formed in the same manner from nouns and verbs. See Horne's *Diversions of Purley.*

\* Children very early in life understand the names of visible objects ; as *pen, paper*—but they make much slower progress in abbreviations which stand for combinations of ideas, and in ideas of immaterial substances. A boy may have a clearer idea of *paper*, at four years of age, than of *thought* or *faith* at fifteen. This shows that children should be taught sciences as much as possible, by visible objects.

† We write *a* before all consonants—before *y, w, and u*, pronounced *yu*, as, *a year, a week, a union.* It should also be written before *b* pronounced, as *a hundred* ; but *an* before *b* mute, as *an hour.*

‡ The article *a* is used before plural nouns, preceded by *few* or *many* ; as, *a few men, a great many houses*, and also before *dozen, hundred, thousand, million*, as *a dozen eggs.*

*The* is used, when we speak of a thing, or number of things, which are specified and known. It limits the signification of the noun to a particular, or to particulars ; as, *the commander in chief* ; *the apostles.*\* *The* is called the *definite article*.

### NUMBER.

*How many numbers are there in grammar ?*

*Two* ; the *singular* and the *plural*. The singular speaks of one ; as, *a table* : The plural of more ; as, *tables*.

*How is the plural of nouns formed ?*

It is regularly formed by adding *s* or *es* to the singular ; as, *tree, trees* ; *fox, foxes*.

When the singular ends in *ch, sh, ss, or x*, the plural is formed by adding *es* ; as, *church, churches* ; *brush, brushes* ; *glass, glasses* ; *box, boxes*.

When the singular ends in *f, or fe*, the plural is sometimes formed by changing *f* into *v*, and adding *s* ; as, *life, lives.*†

### Nouns

\* *The* is used before nouns in either number, and also before the words *more, most, less, least, better, best*, in order to mark the sense with more precision. Proper names may become *common*, by being applied to more individuals than one ; and then they admit the articles, and take the plural number ; as “*a traitor is an Arnöld*”—“*Our general was a Fabius*”—“*The two Howes*”—“*The Misses Smiths*”—“*The Smiths.*”

† The words of this class are the following :

life	lives	staff	staves
knife	knives	loaf	loaves
wife	wives	sheaf	sheaves
leaf	leaves	shelf	shelves
calf	calves	wolf	wolves
self	selves	wharf	wharves
half	halves		

### Irregular plurals.

man	men	focus	soci
woman	women	radius	radii
brothers	{ brethren or brothers	index	{ indexes or indices
			penny

of the ENGLISH LANGUAGE.—PART II. 11

Nouns ending in *y*, preceded by a consonant, form the plural by changing *y* into *ies*; as, *body, bodies*.

*What is meant by case?*

Either a difference of ending in a word to express a different relation, or a different position of a word.

*What cases are there in English?*

The *nominative*, which usually stands before a verb; as, the *boy* writes: The *possessive*, which takes *an s* with a comma, and denotes property, as, *John's hat*: The *objective*,

penny	pence	criterion	criteria
child	children	phenomenon	phenomena
tooth	teeth	thesis	theses
ox	oxen	emphasi:	emphases
die	dice	antithesis	antitheses
louse	lice	hypothesis	hypotheses
goose	geese	seraph	seraphim
beau	beaux	cherub	cherubim

*Summons* is singular, and makes its plural regularly, *summons*.

There are some nouns which are used only in the plural number. Such are the following :

aborigines	compasses	snuffers	breeches
aloes	cresses	shears	trowlers
amends	embers	thanks	matins
annals	clothes	mallows	vitals
archieves	entrails	filings	orgies
ashes	tidings	hatches	pleiades
aslets	fetters	shambles	belles-lettres
bowels	goods	tongs	scissars
ides	lungs	calends	
nones	pincers	vespers	

Others have only a plural termination, but are joined to verbs in either number, or in the singular only.

alms	pains	billiards	ethics
bellows	news	fives	mathematics
gallows	riches	hysterics	billet-doux
odds	wages	measles	sessions
means	victuals	physicks	

The nouns *sheep, deer, fern, hose*, are used in both numbers, without a plural termination. Many nouns, from the nature of the things which they express, admit not the plural number. Such are *wheat, rye, barley, flour, gold, sloth, pride, &c.*

## 12 A GRAMMATICAL INSTITUTE

*objective*, which follows a verb or preposition ; as, *he honors virtue*, or it is an honor to him.\*

## GENDER.

*How many genders are there ?*

Two ; masculine, which comprehends all males ; and feminine, which comprehends all females. †

*How are the different genders expressed ?*

Sometimes by different words ; as, man, woman ; brother, sister ; son, daughter ; uncle, aunt, &c. Sometimes by the words *male* and *female*, *man* and *maid*, prefixed to nouns ; as a male-child, a female-orator ; a manservant, a maid-servant. Sometimes by prefixing *be* and *she* ; as, a *be-goat*, a *she-goat*.

A few nouns have the feminine in *ix* ; *executor*, *executrix*. *Hero* makes *heroine*.

But the regular ending of the feminine gender, is *ess* ; *actor*, *actress* ; *heir*, *heiress*. ‡

## PRONOUN.

\* When nouns end in *ff* or *es*, the comma alone is added ; as *for goodness' sake* ; *on eagles' wings*. This omission is to prevent the disagreeable hissing of the letter *s*.

Sometimes a number of words forms a kind of complex noun, and then the sign of the possessive is added to the last word ; as “the King of England's army”—“The King of Pergamus's treasure.” In these examples, the whole phrase must be considered as a single noun ; for it is not simply, a king's army or treasure ; but the English or Pergamean king's. This mode of speaking is not esteemed elegant ; but is well established, and sometimes cannot be avoided.

† The English language knows no gender in the vegetable world. It leaves to philosophy the sexes of plants, and considers all things without life as having no sex. Sometimes inanimate substances are spoken of as male or female. We say of a ship, “she is a fast sailing vessel.” This personification is often striking and ornamental.

‡ The following are most of the nouns, which have a distinct termination for the feminine.

Abbot	abbess	prophet	prophetess
actor	actress	shepherd	shepherdess
adulterer	adulteress	sorcerer	sorceress
ambassador	ambassador	tutor	tutoreſſ
baron	baroness	traitor	traitreſſ
			benefactor

## PRONOUN.

*What is a Pronoun?*

A small word that stands for a noun—as, “This is a man of worth; treat him with respect.” The pronoun *him* supplies the place of *man*.

*Which are called the Personal Pronouns?*

I, thou, he, she; we, ye or you, they. The person speaking calls himself *I*. 2d. The person spoken to is called *thou*. 3d. The person spoken of, is call'd, if a male, *he*—if a female, *she*—when a thing is spoken of, it is called *it*. The plural of *I*, is *we*—the plural of *thou*, is *ye* or *you*—the plural of *he, she, or it*, is *they*.

*What difference is there in the use of ye and you?*

*Ye* is used in the solemn style—*you* in common discourse. *You* is also used in familiar language, for *thou*, which is used principally in addresses to the Deity.\*

*How do these pronouns vary in the cases?*

Thus :

Singular.

benefactor	benefactress	songster	songstress
count	countess	seamster	seamstress
deacon	deaconess	viscount	viscountess
duke	dutchess	jew	jewess
elector	electress	lion	lioness
emperor	empress	marquis	marchioness
governor	governess	master	mistress
heir	heiress	patron	patroness
peer	peeress	protector	protectress
priest	priestess	executor	executrix
prince	princess	testator	testatrix
poet	poetress	administrator	administratrix
tyger	tygress		

\* One set of christians, the Friends, use *thou* and *ye* in their original sense. These however have run into great errors on their own principles. They often say, *thee does*, *thee has*, *thee gives*; which are as erroneous as *him has*, *her gives*. It would be more correct, and the singularity more pleasing, to say, *thou dost*, *thou hast*, *thou givest*.

A GRAMMATICAL INSTITUTE

Singular.		
Nominative.	Possessive.	Objective.
I	mine	me
thou or you	thine or yours*	thee or you
he	his	him
she	hers	her
it	its	it
Plural.		
we	ours	us
ye or you	yours	you
they	theirs	them. †

*What other words are called pronouns?*

My, thy, her, our, your, their, are called *pronominal adjectives*, because they are joined with nouns. This, that, other, any, some, one, none, are called *definitive pronouns*, because they limit the signification of the noun to which they refer ‡

*Are any of these varied?*

*This, that and other, make, in the plural, these, those and others. §*

*What other pronouns are there in English?*

*Who, which and what. ||* These are called *relatives*, because they relate to some foregoing noun: Except when they ask questions; then they are called *interrogatives*. *What* has the sense of *that which*; except in asking questions.

*Have*

\* The old Saxon *uren* is still heard in New England, *urn*. *Ourn* and *yourn* are obsolete in books, but are not a corruption. *Ours* and *yours* are the most modern words.

† The reasons why the first and second persons have no distinction of gender in language, is, that they are supposed to be present when we speak, and their sex known.

‡ *None* is compounded of *no one*, and yet we often use it as a plural.

§ *This* and *these* refer to things present—*that* and *those*, to things absent. *Others* is used only when the noun is omitted—We say all *others*; but, *all other men*.

|| *That* and *as* are also used as relatives.

*Have the relatives any variations?*

*Who* is thus varied in the cases—Nom. *who*—Poss. *whose*—Obj. *whom*.\*

*What name is given to each, every, other?*

That of *distributives*; because they denote a number of particulars, taken separately; as, “There are five boys, each of whom is able to read.”

*What is the use of own and self?*

They are added to pronouns, to express an idea with force. *Self* makes *selves* in the plural.

### ADJECTIVES.

*What is an adjective?*

A word which expresses some quality or circumstance of a noun; as, a *wise* man, a *young* woman, *two* men.

*Have adjectives any variations?*

Adjectives, which express qualities, capable of being increased or diminished, are varied to express comparison, thus: *Wise*, *wiser*, *wisest*—*cold*, *colder*, *coldest*.

*What are the degrees of comparison called?*

The *positive*, *comparative* and *superlative*. The *positive* expresses the simple quality, as *wise*, *cold*—the *comparative* expresses a quality in a greater or less degree; as, *wiser*, *colder*, *less wise*. The *superlative* expresses

\* *Who* and *whom* are used only to express persons—*Which*, *whose* and *that*, refer to things and persons. *Which*, refers not to persons, except in asking questions. These relatives, *who*, *what*, &c. were formerly spelt, *qua*, *quab*, &c. They seem to be formed, like the Latin *qui*, *quod*, from the Greek, *kai-o*, *kai-oti*. So that our relatives are abbreviations, and signify, *and he*—*and that*, &c. Should it be objected that the origin of the Saxon or Gothic languages is as remote as that of the Greek; I answer, this may be true; and yet both may be derived from the same common root. The relatives of the English, *who*, *which*, *what*; of the Latin, *qui*, *quæ*, *quod*; of the French, *qui*, &c. are evidently derived from the same stock; and from words equivalent to the Greek *kai-o*, *kai-oti*. The French *quelles*, *quo*, *which*, is from *que-elles*, *and they*.

presses a quality in the greatest or least possible degree ; as *wisest*, *coldest*, *least wise*.

Most adjectives may be compared by *more* and *most*, *less* and *least* ; as, *more generous*, or *less generous*,\* &c.

### VERB.

*What is a verb ?*

A part of speech, signifying action or being.

*How many kinds of verbs are there ?*

Two ; *transitive* and *intransitive*.† A transitive verb denotes some action which passes from an agent to an object ;

\* A small degree of quality is expressed by *ish*, as *whitish*, *redish*. A quality in a great degree, but not in the greatest, is expressed by *very*, prefixed to the adjective ; as, *very black*.

#### *Adjectives of irregular comparison.*

good	—better	—best
bad or evil	—worse	—worst
sore	—former	—first
little	—less or lesser	—least
many	{ or }	more
much		most

near	—nearer	—nearest or next
old	{ or }	older—oldest
late		elder—eldest
	{ or }	later—latest
		latter—last

Those adjectives which express simple qualities, or qualities inherent in bodies, seem to claim a place among the original parts of speech ; as *hard*, *soft*, *white*, &c. But adjectives which convey abstract, complex ideas, or ideas of accidental circumstances, are usually formed by a combination of other words, and may be referred to the class of abbreviations.

Thus the termination *less* added to the noun *number*, forms what is called an adjective. But *less* is from the Saxon verb *lesan*, to dismiss. *Numberless* is therefore, *number dismissed*.

The termination *ful*, which needs no explanation, is added to nouns—as *wonderful*, and this compound is called an adjective.

The termination *ly* is from the Saxon *liche* or *like* ; *heavenly* is *heavenliche*, *soberly* *soberliche* ; and so were these words written by Chaucer.

† This division of words is complete—it is not liable to one exception. The common division into *active*, *passive* and *neuter*, is very inaccurate. We have no passive verb in the language ; and those which are called *neuter* are mostly *active*.

Many verbs are used both *transitively* and *intransitively*, as occasion requires. “*He reads well*,” is *intransitive*; “*He reads English well*,” is *transitive*: But this affects not the definition given above.

object ; as, *John loves study.* Here the action of loving passes from *John*, the agent, to *study*, the object.

*What is an intransitive verb?*

An *intransitive verb* expresses *action or being*, which is confined to the *agent* ; as, *I run, he lives, they sleep.* Therefore when the verb is *intransitive*, no object follows it.

*How many things belong to a verb?*

Four ; persons, number, time and mode.

*How many persons are used with verbs?*

Three—as in the singular number, *I write, she writes,* *he writes.* In the plural, *we write, ye or you write,* *they write.*

*How many times or tenses are there?*

Three ; *present, past and future.* An action may be now doing ; as, *I write, or am writing.* The verb is then said to be in the *present tense.* An action may have been done some time ago ; as, *I wrote or have written.* The verb is then in the *past time.* When the action is yet to come, the verb is in the *future time* ; as *I shall or will write.*

*What is mode in grammar?*

The manner of representing *action or being.*

*How do the English express time and mode?*

Principally by the means of several small words called *auxiliaries or helpers* ; viz. *do, be, have, shall, will, may, can, should, would, could and must.*\*

*Which are the modes?*

The Infinitive, the Indicative, the Imperative, and the Subjunctive.

*Explain them.*

The

\* These helping verbs are by some grammarians considered as principal verbs. Doubtless they were all such originally ; some of them are so now, as *do, be, have.* *To* is said to be the same original as *do*—We preserve *to* before the radical verb *to love* ; and *do* makes the present and past tenses, *do love* and *did love.* I make a distinction between the verbs—When they stand alone, I call them *principal verbs*—when prefixed to verbs and particles, I call them *auxiliaries.*

The infinitive expresses action or being, without limitation of person or number ; as, *to write*.

The indicative shows or declares an action or being ; as, *I write, I am* ; or some circumstances of action or being ; as, *I can write, I must sleep* ; or asks a question ; as, *Do I write ?*

The imperative commands, exhorts, or prays ; as, *Write, go ; do thou grant.*

The subjunctive expresses action or being, under some condition or uncertainty ; and is commonly preceded by a particle ; as, *If I write.\**

*What are participles ?*

They are words which are formed from verbs, and have the nature of verbs, nouns, or adjectives.

*How do they end ?*

*In d, t, n, or ing.* Thus from the verbs, move, teach, write, go—are formed the participles, moved, taught, written, going.

*What is the use of do as a helping word ?*

It has four uses. 1<sup>st</sup>, To express emphasis or opposition ; as, “perdition catch my soul, but I *do* love thee.”

2<sup>d</sup>, To save the repetition of another verb ; as, “he writes better than you *do* ; that is, better than you *write*.<sup>”</sup>

3<sup>d</sup>, To ask a question ; *do* they write ?

4<sup>th</sup>, It is elegantly used in negative sentences ; as, “he *does* not walk.”

In all other cases it is obsolete or inelegant.

*What is the use of be and have ?*

As helpers, they are signs of time.

*What is the use of shall ?*

In

\* We have no modes in the sense that the Romans and Greeks had, viz. formed by different endings of verbs. But the foregoing common distribution of modes, seems to me natural, and must render the acquisition of the language easy. I cannot discard all distinctions of mode, because not formed by inflections. Our combinations of words have uses, which are reducible to rule, and require illustration.

In the first person it foretels ; as, “ I shall go ; we shall speak.”

In the second and third persons, it implies a command or determination ; as, “ he shall go ; you shall write.”

*What is the use of will ?*

In the first person, it promises ; as, “ I will pay him.”

In the second and third, it foretels ; as, “ he will speak ; you will go.”

*What is the use of would ?*

In the first person, it denotes a past, or conditional promise ; or mere inclination. It is often used in the present time, in declaratory phrases ; as, “ I would not choose any.”

In the second and third persons it expresses inclination ; as, “ he would not go ; you would not answer.”

*What is the use of should ?*

In the first person, it commonly expresses event merely ; as, “ I should write, if I had an opportunity.”

In the second and third persons, it expresses duty or obligation ; as, “ you should help the poor ; he should go to school.”

When an emphasis is laid on *should* or *would*, it varies their meaning.

The AUXILIARY or HELPING VERBS are thus varied :

*Do.*

*Have.*

*Can.*

Present Time or Tense.

Singular Number.

I do	I have	I can
Thou doest or { doth, or you do {	Thou hast, or { you have {	Thou canst, or { you can {
He doeth, does { or doth {	He hath or has	He can

Plural Number.

We do	We have	We can
Ye or you do	Ye or you have	Ye or you can
They do	They have	They can

Past

## Past Time.

*Singular.*

I did	I had	I could
Thou didst, or } you did }	Thou hadst, or } you had }	Thou couldst, } or you could }
He did	He had	He could

*Plural.*

We did	We had	We could
Ye or you did	Ye or you had	Ye or you could
They did	They had	They could

## PARTICIPLES.

Doing	Having
Done	Had

## Present Time.

*Singular.*

May	Shal'	Will
I may	I shall	I will
Thou mayest, } or you may }	Thou shalt, or } you shall }	Thou wilt, or } you will }
He may	He shall	He will

*Plural.*

We may	We shall	We will
Ye or you may	Ye or you shall	Ye or you will
They may	They shall	They will

## Past Time.

*Singular.*

I might	I should	I would
Thou mightest, } or you might }	Thou shouldst, } or you should }	Thou wouldest, } or you wouldest }
He might	He should	He would

*Plural.*

We might	We should	We would
Ye or you might	Ye or you should	Ye or you would
They might	They should	They woud

*Must* has no variation.

*How is the verb be varied in the modes, times and persons?*

The

The verb *be* is thus varied, and united to the other helping verbs.

### INDICATIVE MODE.

#### *Present Time, declaratory.*

##### Singular.

I am  
Thou art, or you are  
He is

##### Plural.

We are  
Ye or you are  
They are

#### Or thus,

I be  
You be  
He is

We be  
Ye or you be  
They be

#### With *may* in this manner;

I may be	We may be
Thou mayest be, or you } may be	Ye or you may be
He may be	They may be

#### With *can*.

I can be	We can be
Thou canst be, or you } can be	Ye or you can be
He can be	They can be

#### With *must*.

I must be	We must be
Thou must be, } you must be }	Ye or you must be
He must be	They must be

#### *Conditional, with would.*

I would be	We would be
Thou wouldst be, } you would be }	Ye or you would be
He would be	They would be

#### With *could, should* and *might* in the same manner.

#### *Past Time, declaratory.*

I was  
Thou wast, or you was  
He was

We were  
Ye or you were  
They were

After

After *have* and *had*, the participle *been* is used.

I have been	We have been
Thou hast been	Ye or you have been
you have been	
He has been	They have been
I had been	We had been
Thou hadst been	Ye or you had been
you had been	
He had been	They had been
I could be	We could be
Thou couldst be, or you	Ye or you could be
could be	
He could be	They could be

*Would* and *should* are varied in the same manner; but these forms of the verbs are not much used in the past time, except after other verbs, or in negative and interrogative phrases.

I might have been	We might have been
Thou mightest have been	Ye or you might have been
you might have been	
He might have been	They might have been

*Could have been*, *would have been*, *should have been*, in the same manner. *Must have been* is also used, but *must* is not varied.

I may have been	We may have been
Thou mayest have been	Ye or you may have been
you may have been	
He may have been	They may have been

#### Future Time.

I shall be	We shall be
Thou shalt be, or you	Ye or you shall be
shall be	
He shall be	They shall be
I will be	We will be
Thou wilt be	Ye or you will be
you will be	
He will be	They will be

I shall

I shall have been	We
Thou shalt have been } you shall have been }	ye or you } shall have been
He shall have been	They
I will have been	We
Thou wilt have been } you will have been }	ye or you } will have been
He will have been	They

## IMPERATIVE or COMMANDING MODE.

Be thou, or	Be ye, or be you
Do thou be	Do ye be, or do you be

## SUBJUNCTIVE or CONDITIONAL MODE.

This is formed merely by placing *if*, *tho*, *suppose*, *whether*, or some word implying condition, before the Indicative Mode thro all its variations ; thus, *if I am*, *if he is*, *tho we are* : Except the following form of this verb, which is only in the subjunctive, present time.

If I were	If we were
If thou wert } if you were	If ye or you were
If he were	If they were

## PARTICIPLES.

Being	Been
-------	------

[The teacher may direct the learner to add any passive participles to the foregoing, which will give a combination of words expressing the sense of the Latin and Greek passive verbs.]

*In what manner are regular verbs varied in the several modes, times and persons?*

They are all varied like *turn* in the following example :

INFINITIVE MODE.—*To turn.*

## INDICATIVE MODE.

Present Time, declaratory.

I turn	We
Thou turnest } you turn	Ye or you }
He turneth, or turns	They

With

With the Helping Verbs, thus :

I do turn	We
Thou dost turn	{
you do turn	Ye or you
He doth turn, or does turn	} do turn
	They
I may turn	We
Thou mayest turn	{
you may turn	Ye or you
He may turn	} may turn
	They
I can	We
Thou canst	{
you can	Ye or you
He can	} can turn
	They

I must turn, &c.

*Conditional.*

I might	We
Thou mightest	{
you might	Ye or you
He might	} might turn
	They
I would turn	We
I could turn	{
I should turn	varied in the same manner.

*Past Time.*

I turned	We turned
Thou turnest	{
you turned	Ye or you turned
He turned	They turned

With the Helping Verbs, thus :

I did turn	We
Thou didst turn	{
you did turn	Ye or you
He did turn	} did turn
	They
I have	We
Thou hast	{
you have	Ye or you
He has	} have turned
	They

I had

I had turned	We
Thou hadst turned	Ye or
you had turned	you
He had turned	They
I may	We
Thou mayest	Ye or
you may	you
He may	They
I could	We
Thou couldst	Ye or
you could	you
He could	They

I might have turned  
I would have turned  
I should have turned

*Future Time.*

I shall turn	We
Thou shalt turn	Ye or
you shall turn	you
He shall turn	They
I will turn	We
Thou wilt turn	Ye or
you will turn	you
He will turn	They
I shall	We
Thou shalt	Ye or
you shall	you
He shall	They
I will	We
Thou wilt	Ye or
you will	you
He will	They

*Imperative Mode.*

Turn, or	Turn, or
Turn thou or turn you, or	Turn ye or you, or
Do thou or you turn	Do you turn

## PARTICLES.

Turning, Turned.

The subjunctive mode is the same with the indicative, with *if*, *though*, or some term of condition prefixed.

## PARTICLES or ABBREVIATIONS.

*What do Grammarians call Particles?*

All those small words which connect nouns, verbs and sentences; as, *and*, *for*, *from*, *with*, &c.

*What are these words?*

They are mostly abbreviations or corruptions of old nouns and verbs.

*How may the abbreviations be distributed?*

Into Conjunctions, Prepositions and Adverbs.

*What is the particular use of Conjunctions?*

To connect words and sentences; as, four and three make seven; Thomas studies, but John does not.

*Which are the Conjunctions?*

Those more generally used are the following;

And, if, nor, either, since, unless, also, but, neither, therefore, though, else, or, yet, because, wherefore, whether.

*What is the use of prepositions?*

They are commonly placed before nouns or other words to express some relation.

*Which are the particles called prepositions?*

These, which may stand alone, and are called *separable prepositions*, viz.

A, for, till, above, before, from, until, about, bekind, in, into, to, after, beneath, on, upon, towards, against, below, of, under, among or amongst, between, over, with, at, betwixt, through, within, amidst, beyond, by, during, without, around.

The following are used only with other words, and are therefore called *inseparable prepositions*:

Be, con, dis, mis, per, pre, re, sub, un.

*What is the use of adverbs?*

To express circumstances of time, place and degree, &c.

*Which are some of the most common adverbs?*

Already, alway, by and by, else, ever, enough, far, hence, here, how, hither, thither, whether, indeed, much,

no,

no, not, never, now, often, perhaps, rather, seldom, then, thence, there, very, when, where, whilst or while, yesterday.

Besides these, there are great numbers of others, and particularly those formed by *ly*, added to adjectives—*honest, honestly*.

What do we call such words as, *alas, oh, fie, pish*, &c.

*Interjections.* These are mere expressions of passions which are sudden and irregular.\*

#### SENTENCES.

\* The theory of adverbs, conjunctions and prepositions, which I call *abbreviations*, is novel. I shall therefore introduce an abstract of Mr. Horne's explanations, as I find them in his *Diversions of Purley*.

#### ABBREVIATIONS, called CONJUNCTIONS.

*If.*

*If* is the imperative of the Saxon, *gisan*, *to give*.

—“My largesse

“Hath lotted her to be your brother's mistress

“*Gif* she can be reclaimed; *Gif* not, his prey.”

*Sad Shepherd*, Act. 2. Sc. 2.

This passage is thus resolved, “She can be reclaimed; *Give that* (condition, circumstance) my largesse hath lotted her to be your brother's mistress. She can not be reclaimed; *give that*, my largesse hath lotted her to be your brother's prey.

This word *if* was written, by old authors, *yeve*, *yef*, *yf*, *gife*, *giff*, *gi*; &c. all corruptions of *gif*. *Gyn* is still used in the north of England.—*Wilkins*.

This resolution obviates the absurdity which is incurred by ranking *that* as a conjunction after *if*; *if that*; for two conjunctions together must be an absurdity. The truth is, *if* is a verb, and *that* is always a pronoun or adjective.

In Latin, *si* is the imperative of *sum*; being a contraction of *sit, be it*; a mode of expression equivalent to *gif*.

*An* was formerly used in the same manner.

“*An* they will take it, so. *If* not, he's plain.” *Shakespeare*.

*An* is the imperative of *an*, a word in the Anglo-Saxon language, signifying grant.

*Unless.*

This is from the Saxon *onlesian*, to dismiss. It was formerly written *onless* or *onleſſe*.

“*Onles ye believe, ye shall not understand.*”

That is, “*ye believe, dismiss that (fact) ye shall not understand.*”

*Yet.*

## SENTENCES.

*What is a sentence?*

A sentence is a number of words ranged in proper order, and making complete sense.

*What does the formation of sentences depend on?*

On agreement and government.

*What is agreement?*

When

*Yet.*

This is the same as *get* from the Saxon *getan*, to obtain.

*Still.*

This is from the Saxon *stellan*, to place or put.

*Else* is from *alesan*, to dismiss. Imp. *ales*.

*Tbo* or *thought*.

These are from *thaef* and *thaefan*; the imperatives of *thaefan* and *thaefgan*, a different spelling of the same word, which signified to allow. Many of the common people, both in England and America, pronounce the word *thaef* or *tbof*, which is the exact original.

"Though he slay me, yet I will trust in him." That is, "allow or suppose he shall slay me, &c."

*But.*

This is used in two senses, as it is derived from two originals of different significations. One is from *bot*, the imperative of *botan*, to boot; a word still used in English for more or addition. The other, from *be-utan*, be out; be absent. Gawin Douglas uses *bot* and *but*, as words of distinct significations; and so do many old authors.

"Bot thy worke shall endure in laude and glorie,  
But spot or falt condine eterne memorie."

Here *bot* is *more, farther*; and *but*, *be out or without*.

In modern English, we say, "But let us proceed," that is, *bot* or *more*. We say, "all *but* one," that is, "all, *be out* one," or *except* one. *But* is now used in both senses, and is always the contraction of a verb.

*Without.*

This is from *awyrth-utan*, to be out: It has the sense of *but*, from *be-utan*. It is applied to words and to sentences. "I will not go *without* (be out) him." "It cannot be read *without* (be out) the Attorney General consents to it." Lord Mansfield.

*And.*

This is from *an* the Imperative of *anjan*, to give, and *ad*, the series, rest, remainder. *An, ad, give the rest.*

The usual definition of *and* is wretchedly incorrect. "And is a conjunction copulative; the conjunction connects sentences,

When one word stands connected with another word, in the same number, case, gender and person.

What is government?

It is when one word causes another to be in some case or mode.

R U L E

so as out of two, to make one sentence." Thus, "You and I and Peter rode to London," is one sentence made up of three. "You rode, I rode, Peter rode." But let us try another example. "I bought a book for four shillings and six pence." That is, according to the usual definition, "I bought a book for four shillings, I bought a book for six pence." And, with all its connecting force, cannot make one sentence of these.

And is a contraction of a noun and verb, *I bought a book for four shillings*, give the addition, *six pence*.

Left.

From *lesan*, to dismiss. Hence *leave* and *release*.

"Kiss the son, left he be angry." That is, "Kiss the son, dismiss or omit that, he will be angry." This by the way, is a proof that this mode of expression, which has hitherto been considered the present tense of the subjunctive, is merely an elliptical form of the future Indicative.

Sinse.

This is the participle of *seon*, to see. It was formerly written *sith*, *sitence*, &c, and is to this day, pronounced by the common people, *sence*, *sen*, *sin*, &c. It is used for *seen thence*, or for *seen*, for seeing *that*, or for *seen that*. But at this day writers often use the participle *seeing*.

As.

From the German *es*, that, a pronoun.

Many other words, as, *except*, *because*, are commonly called conjunctions; but very improperly. Since Latin words have been incorporated with the Saxon, we use, *suppose*, *on condition*, *provided that*, nearly in the sense of *if*.

#### ABBREVIATIONS called PREPOSITIONS.

With.

*With*, is from *witban*, to join. "A house with a wall," i.e., "A house join a wall." It is often synonymous with *by*.

Through.

This is from the Gothic, *dauro*, or Teutonic, *thurub*, a passage or gate. Hence the English *door*, the German *thure*, *thur*, &c.

From.

The Gothic *north*, from a beginning. "Five miles from New-York," is, "Five miles beginning New-York."

## RULE I.

A verb must agree with its nominative case in number and person.

## EXAMPLES.

In the solemn style : *Thou readest, he readeth, ye read.*

In the familiar style : *I go, he goes, we go, you go.*

## EXPLANATION.

## To.

From the Gothic *tawi*, *act*, *effect*, *consummation*; participle *tawie*, from *tawan*, *to do*, *to finish*. It seems to have been prefixed to verbs, on dropping the Saxon termination of the infinitive, *an*, with a view to distinguish verbs from nouns.—*One loves change, one loves to change*, that is, *act change*.

The Latin *ad* is probably from *a* *?*, which is from *actum*, participle of *ager*; and corresponds with *to* in sense and derivation.

## Of.

From the Saxon *asora*, *offspring*, *consequence*. The Russians formerly used this, where the English would use *son*, as a patronymic ending. *Peterson*, the Russians would have called *Peterbos*.

## For.

From the Gothic, *fairina*, *cause*, “Christ died *for us*,” that is, *cause us*.

## By.

This is from *byth*, the imperative of *beon*, *to be*. This was formerly used for *during*. “He made Clement, *by his lyfe*, helper, and successor.” *Fabian*.

In old authors it was written *be*.

“Be my feith, be my troth.” — *Chevy Chase*.

We now say, “By my faith.”

## Between. Betwixt.

*Between*, is the imperative *be*, and *treogen*, *twain*.

*Betwixt* is *be*, and *twas* the Gothic for *two*.

*Before*, *behind*, *below*, *beside*, are compounded with *be*, and the nouns *fore*, *bind*, *low*, *side*.

*Beneath* is from *be* and *neath*; that is, *bottom*. From *neath*, we have *nether*, *nadir*, *hill* in use.

*Under* seems to be on *nether*, or as the Dutch pronounce it, *nder*, from *neath*.

*Beyond*, is from *be* and *geond*, the participle of *gan*, or *gangan*, to *go*: *Beyond*, is therefore, *be passed*.

*Ward*, is the Saxon *ward* or *weard*, imperative of *wardian*, to *look at*. It is the same as the French *garder*; for we begin with

## EXPLANATION.

*Thou* is the second person singular number, and so is the verb, *readest*. *He* is the third person singular, and so is *readeth*. *Ye* is the second person plural number, and so is the verb *read*. And it may be observed in the familiar style, that each verb is in the same person as its nominative word.

## REMARK

with *w*, words which the French begin with *g*. Hence *come*, *ward*, *warden*, *toward*, *homeward*, *backward*, &c.

The English *ward* and *warden*, are the same as *guard* and *guardian*, derived from the French *garder*.

*Athwart*, is from *ath-werian*, to twist.

*Among*, *amongst*, are from *gemengan*, to mix.

*Against*, in the Saxon, *ongegen*, probably from the same root as the Dutch, *jagenen*, to meet or oppose.

*Amid*, *amidst*, are from *on middan*, in the midst.

*Along*, is from the Saxon *on long*, a length or distance.

*Round*, *around*, in Saxon, *on wheel*, on wheel; whence probably the English *wheel*. *On round* or *one round*. Dan. *rund*.

*Afide*, *abroad*, *across*, *astride*, are formed in the same manner. *On side*, or *one side*. We often say now, “he went *one side*.”

*Instead*, is, *in place*. *Bedstead*, *homestead*; are, *bed place*, *home place*.

*About*, from *onbuta*, *abuta*, one bound. Hence *to butt* and *bound*.

*After*, the comparative of *aft*, the hind part.

*Aft* is retained only in the leamen's dialect.

*Up*, probably from the same root as *top*.

*Over*, from Saxon *usa*, *ujcra*, *usermost*, which signify, *high*, *bigger*, *biggest*. Hence, *above*, *upper*, *uppermost*.

## ABBREVIATIONS called ADVERBS.

The termination *ly*, is from the Saxon *liche*, like; *beavenly*, is *beavenlike*.

*Aghast* is from *agaze*, to look with astonishment.

*Ago* is merely a contraction of *agone*, from go.

*Asunder* is from *asunder*, participle of *asundrian*, to separate. *Askew*. In the Danish *skew*, is to twist.

*Astant*, *askance*, in the Dutch, *schuin*, *wry*, *crooked*.

*To wit*, from *wittan*, to know.

*Naught*, *nought*, *nowbit*.

*Needs*, *need* is.

*Anon*, in one (moment, &c.)

*Alone*,

## REMARK 1.

Although the nominative word commonly stands before the verb, as in the foregoing examples ; yet it may follow an intransitive verb ; as, “on a sudden appeared the queen.”

And when a question is asked or a command given, the nominative must follow the verb or auxiliary sign ; as, *did be go?* *were you there?* *go thou;* *awake you.* But in giving commands, we generally omit the nominative ; as, *go,* *awake.*

## REMARK 2.

When *there*, *nor* or *either*, precedes the verb, in the beginning

*Alone, only, from all one, one like.*

*Alive, on life, or in life. Asleep, on, or in sleep.*

*Anew, abroad, formed in the same manner.*

*Fare well, go well, from the old verb *faran*, to go. Hence, fare, a passage, through fare, to pay the fare.*

*Aught or ought, a whit or one whit.*

*Awhile, in time, or time that.*

*Aloft, in air. In Saxon *lyft* is air. Hence, to lift, left, luff, lee, leeward, &c.*

*Enough, Dutch, *genoeg*, content. Lo, from look. Hence our vulgar exclamation, *la soul.**

*Lief from *leof*, glad, delight, still used, but corrupted into lives. “I had as lives.”*

*Once, twice, thrice, formerly written, *anes*, *twies*, *thries.* Perhaps the possessive of one, two, three.*

*Rather, the comparative of *rathe*, prompt, swift. *Rathe* is used by Milton.*

*Seldom, an adjective, rare, uncommon. In Dutch, *seldén*, German, *selten*, from the same root.*

*Stark, Saxon, *stare*, strong ; but now used like total, entire, stark mad.*

*Span, from *spange*, shining, span new, span clean. Hence *spangle.**

*Aye, a verb, which the French retain. It is the imperative of *avoir*, to have ; *aye, have it.* *Yea, is ay-es, have that.**

*Yea, in German *ja*, pron. *yə-w* is from the same source.*

*No, not, from an old word signifying unwilling. In Danish it is *nodig*, in Dutch *nood*, node.*

Such is Mr. Horne’s theory of the particles. If in some instances his system is liable to doubts and exceptions, yet in general it is well founded, being clearly established by undisputed etymology.

beginning of a phrase, the nominative may follow the verb or auxiliary; as, “*there was a man;*” “*nor am I solicitous;*” “*neither hath this man sinned, nor his parents.*” John ix. 3.

REMARK 3.

When an intransitive verb stands between two nominative words, the one in the singular, the other in the plural number, the verb more elegantly agrees with the first; as, “*the sum is ten pounds;*” “*all things are dust.*”

FALSE CONSTRUCTION.

Solemn Style.

Who is 1 thou, O man, that presume 2 on thy own wisdom? Thou ought 3 to know thou are 4 ignorant. He that confess 5 his sins and forsake 6 them, shall find mercy. A soft answer turns 7 away wrath. Anger rest 8 in the bosom of fools.

Familiar Style.

Philadelphia are 9 a large city; it stand 10 on the west side of the river Delaware, and am 11 the most regular city in America. It containeth 12 a variety of different sects; all speaks 13 their own language; and they worshippeth 14 as they please. I were 15 much delighted with it; I wishest 16 that you couldst 17 see it, and observe its manners.

N. B. The nominative to a verb is found by asking a question, who or what? Example: “A clear conscience, which we ought carefully to preserve, in every station of life, and which will secure to us a perpetual source of inward tranquillity, will also be our principal guard against the abuses of malevolence.” Here the question occurs, what will be our guard? &c. the answer is, a clear conscience, which is therefore the nominative case to the verb *be*. The noun to which an adjective refers, is found in the same manner. Example: “A man in office, to whom some important trust is committed, ought to be exceedingly

1 art. 2 presumeth. 3 oughtest. 4 art. 5 confesseth.  
6 forsaketh. 7 turneth. 8 resteth.  
9 is. 10 stands. 11 is. 12 contains. 13 speak. 14 worshippeth.  
15 was. 16 wish. 17 could.

exceedingly cautious in his behaviour." Ask the question, who ought to be cautious? the answer is, a man in office? man therefore is the noun, to which the adjective cautious refers.

### RULE 2.

Two or more nouns singular connected by a copulative conjunction, may have verbs, pronouns and nouns agreeing with them in the plural number.

### EXAMPLES.

1. Envy and vanity are detestable vices.
2. Brutus and Cassius were brothers; they were friends to Roman liberty.

### EXPLANATION.

1. Envy and vanity are both nouns in the singular number, but being joined by the copulative conjunction and, they require the word are to be in the plural number.
2. Brutus and Cassius are both in the singular number, but being united by a copulative conjunction they form a plural and require the verb were, the nouns brothers and friends, and the pronoun they, to be in the plural number.

### REMARK.

When nouns singular are united by a disjunctive conjunction, the verb, pronoun and noun following, must be in the singular number, as referring to one only; as, "either John or I was there;" "neither pride nor envy nor any other vicious passion disturbs my repose."

### FALSE CONSTRUCTION.

Wisdom and learning is 1 very necessary for men in high stations. Peace and security is 2 the happiness of a community. Sobriety and humility leads 3 to honor. You and I is 4 very studious. You and he was 5 accounted good scholar 6. Prince Eugene and the Duke of Marlborough was 7 great generals; be was scourge 8 to the house of Bourbon. Love, joy, good humour and friendship raises 9 correspondent feelings in every heart; it

1 are. 2 are. 3 lead. 4 are. 5 were, 6 scholars. 7 were, 8 they were scourges. 9 raise.

it sweetens 10 all the pleasures of life; but hatred, ill-nature, jealousy, envy, insincerity and melancholly diffuses 11 its 12 baleful influence, and casts 13 a cloud over social felicity.

N. B. It must be remarked, that when different persons are mentioned, the verb must agree with the first in preference to both the others, and with the second in preference to the third. Thus all three persons united; as, *you* and *I* and *be*, make *we*, the first person plural.

*You* and *I*, make *we*.

*You* and *he*, make *ye* or *you*, the second person.

### RULE 3.

Nouns of multitude, though they are in the singular number, may have a verb and pronoun agreeing with them either in the singular or plural.

#### EXAMPLES.

The assembly *is* or *are* very numerous; *they* are much divided. "My people *is* or *are* foolish; *they* have not known me." The company *was* or *were* noisy.

#### EXPLANATION.

*Assembly* is a noun of multitude, and may be united with *is* in the singular, or with *are* in the plural number. The same is observable of *people* and *company*.\*

FALSE

10 they sweeten. 11 diffuse. 12 their. 13 cast.

\* We would have strict regard to the meaning of these collective nouns, in determining whether the singular or plural number is most proper to be joined with them. And if the indefinite article *a* or *an* precedes the noun, the verb must be singular; as, "*a company was*, &c."

There are some nouns in English, that have a plural termination, which are really in the singular, and are followed by verbs in the singular. Such are *news*, *pains*, *odds*, *victuals*, *alms*, *bellow*s, *gallows*, and sometimes *wages*. *Means* is used in both numbers, and sometimes *pains*.

#### Examples.

"What is the *news*?" General Practice.

"Much *pains* *was* taken." General Practice.

"Great *pains* *was* taken." Pope.

"It is *odds*; what is the *odds*?" General Practice.

"The *victuals* *is* good." General Practice.

"We had such very fine *victuals* that I could not eat *it*." Swift.

"He

## FALSE CONSTRUCTION.

His cattle is a very large. Their constitution were 2 subverted by ambition. The church were 3 not free from false professors. The island contain 4 many inhabitants.

N. B. *Cattle*, though in the singular number, conveys an idea of plurality, and therefore requires the verb to be plural, in all cases. But *constitution*, *church* and *island* are not nouns of multitude, and they require a singular verb; though good writers have used them as such, with a plural verb. "What reason have the church of Rome to talk of modesty in this case?" Tillotson, vol. 1. ser. 49. In some cases this is admissible.

## RULE 4.

An adjective must agree with its noun in number. Participles in the nature of adjectives, refer to some noun, but have no variation.

## EXAMPLES.

*This man, that boy, these men, those boys, this kind.*

## EXPLANATION.

*Man* is in the singular number and so is the adjective *this*.

"He gave much alms." Bible.

"To ask an alms." Bible.

"Give me that bellows." General Practice.

"Let a gallows be made." Bible.

"This is a means." General Practice, and almost all good writers.

"The wages of sin is death." Bible.

Under this remark we may rank, *billiards*, *fives*, *ethics*, *mathematics*, *measles*, *hysterics*, and perhaps *riches*.

"Billiards or fives is a game." General Practice.

"Ethics or mathematics is a science." General Practice.

"The measles is a disease." General Practice.

*Hysterics* is often used in the same manner.

"The metaphysics of language is not yet sufficiently cultivated." Michaelis.

"In one hour is so great riches\* come to nought." Bible.

But *wages* and *riches* are more frequently considered as plurals. See Chaucer.

\* Anciently *riches* was in the singular *richesse*, and in the plural, *richesses*; so that *riches* is literally in the singular number.

3 are. 2 was. 3 was. 4 contains,

*this.* *Boy* is singular and so is *that.* *Men* and *boys* are plural, and so are the adjectives *these* and *those.*\*

## REMARK I.

Adjectives are commonly placed before the nouns to which they refer.

## EXAMPLES.

Adj.	Noun.	Adj.	Noun.
Brave	men	warm	weather
virtuous	women	polite	behaviour
kind	friends	frugal	manners
wife	rulers	illustrious	general

## EXCEPTIONS.

1. When something depends on an adjective, it follows the noun; as,

Noun.	Adjective.
Articles	necessary for a family.
food	convenient for me.
method	suited to his capacity.

2. When the adjective is emphatical, it is placed after the noun; as,

Noun.	Adjective.
Alexander	the great.
Scipio	the younger.
Socrates	the wise.

3. Sometimes an intransitive verb is placed between the noun and adjective; as,

Noun.	Verb.	Adjective.
The Sun	is	pleasant.
the war	was	expensive.
virtue	is	amiable.

4. Sometimes the adjective stands before the verb or auxiliary; as,

Adjective.	Verb.	Noun.
Happy	is	the man.
happy	shall	he be.

## 5. When

\* It will be well to remark, that we have no adjectives in the language that are varied, except *this* and *that.* All others, being the same in all genders and numbers, cannot help agreeing with their nouns; as, a *good boy*, or *good boys*, or *good girls*.

5. When several adjectives agree with one noun, they may stand after it ; as, a woman, modest, sensible, and prudent.

## REMARK 2.

Articles are commonly placed before adjectives ; thus,

<i>Art.</i>	<i>Adj.</i>	<i>Noun.</i>
A	wise	legislator.
a	great	scholar.
the	best	season.
the	sweetest	apples.

But they are placed after the adjectives *all*, *such* and *many* ; thus,

<i>Adj.</i>	<i>Art.</i>	<i>Noun.</i>
All	the	men.
such	a	man.
many	a	man.

And after any adjective, subjoined to the adverbs, *so*, *as*, *how* ; thus,

<i>Adv.</i>	<i>Adj.</i>	<i>Art.</i>	<i>Noun.</i>
So	great	a	hero.
as	fine	a	genius.
how	bright	a	sun.

## REMARK 3.

When *this* and *that*, *these* and *those*, stand opposed to each other, *this* and *these* refer to the last member of the sentence, *that* and *those* to the former.

" Self-love, the spring of action moves the soul ;  
Reason's comparing balance rules the whole ;  
Man, but for *that*, no action could attend,  
Ahd but for *this*, were active to no end." Pope.

*That*, in the third line, refers to *self-love* in the first ; and *this*, in the fourth, refers to *reason* in the second.

" Some place the bliss in action, some in ease ;  
*Those* call it pleasure, and contentment *these*."

*Those* refers to men who place the bliss in *action* ; *these*, to men who place the bliss in *ease*.

## REMARK 4.

The distributive pronominal adjectives, *each*, *every*, *either*, must always have verbs agreeing with them in the singular

singular number; for they refer to individuals separate from each other; as,

Each of us *is*—not each of us *are.*

Every one *was*—not every one *were.*

Either of the men *is*—not either of the men *are.*

#### REMARK 5.

Many words are either nouns or adjectives; as, *good*, *evil*. Instead of single names, we often use compound nouns; as, *fire-stoves*.

#### REMARK 6.

Adjectives often refer to whole numbers of sentences, as to nouns; thus, “*Agreeable* to order, the committee passed a vote;” “*prior* to the decree, it was resolved.” These sentences are transposed; the natural order being; “The committee passed a vote, *agreeable* to order;” It was resolved *prior* to the decree.” The adjectives *agreeable*, *prior*, agree with the preceding member of the sentence; the committee passed a vote, *which* (act) was *agreeable* to order. It was resolved, *which* (act of resolving) was *prior* to the decree. This is an established usage in the language.\* The same rule is found in

\* In the sentence, “*previous* to the vote, a motion was made.” Previous seems to refer to the word *time*, implied. But the general rule is, that the adjective, in these phrases, agrees with the whole member of a sentence. *Antecedent*, *subsequent*, *pursuant*, *according*, *conformable*, *suitable*, *independent*, are used in the same manner.

Some late writers, not attending to this idiom of the language, have effected correctness by using adverbs in such phrases; *previously* to this event, *agreeably* to order, *conformably* to his intention. I do not recollect to have seen *subsequently* to this event, or *accordingly* to orders, ever used; but they are just as correct as the other examples which are frequently used. Setting aside the difficulty of pronouncing such phrases, the modern alteration is a gross violation of the rule of construction, and of the purest practice. For instance, *agreeably* means, *in an agreeable manner*; but what an awkward construction is this; *in an agreeable manner to the order of the day*, it was resolved! This is the literal resolution of the phrase, which is not English; there being no situation in which *to* will properly follow the adverb—*agreeably*, *accordingly*, &c. as their regimen. In those examples.

in this sentence ; " Suppose that John should come this morning." Here *that* refers to the whole subsequent part of the sentence. But this relative is usually omitted.

## REMARK 7.

One adjective often qualifies another ; as, *very cold*, *full sweet*, *most excellent*. In these expressions, the last adjective refers to, and qualifies the noun employed in the sentence ; and the first adjective qualifies the last, or shows the *degree* of the *quality* predicated of the thing. Thus, it is *very cold weather* ; *weather* is the noun ; *cold* denotes the *quality* of the weather ; and *very* marks the *degree* of that quality. The phrase, *right worshipful* is of this kind, and many others.\*

## REMARK

plex where the adjective seems to denote the *manner* of *acting*, or *being*, and thus to qualify the *verb* instead of the *sentence*, it is more agreeable to the analogy of our language, to suppose the word *manner* implied ; as, "he behaved himself *conformable* to that blessed example ;" that is, he behaved *in a manner conformable*. Or we may suppose *conformable* to agree with *be* in the beginning of the sentence ; *be, conformable* to the blessed example, behaved himself. This last is the Latin idiom, and not unfrequently found in English, especially among the poets. But in most instances, the *manner* of *action* or *being* has nothing to do in the sentence. Thus, "agreeable to promise, he called at five o'clock :" In this sentence, there is no reference to the *manner* of calling ; the *time* is a particular circumstance in the promise, but it is not the only circumstance ; the whole affirmation or declaration, *he called at five o'clock* is *agreeable to promise*. This is the true construction ; it is the genius of the language ; and had grammarians examined our own language and its peculiar idioms, they would have discovered, long before now, that *adjectives may agree with sentences or members of a sentence, as well as with nouns.*

I would just remark farther, that the original derivative meaning of some adjectives in *able*, seems to be almost lost in modern usage. Thus, *suitable*, *agreeable*, *conformable*, *proportionable*, and others, do not often denote what may be *suited*, *conformed*, or *may agree* ; but what is *suited*, or *conformed*, or *agreeing*. "With a force *suitable* to the enterprize," is a more usual expression, than "with a force *suited* to the enterprize."

\* *Very* is merely the French *vrai*, *true* ; anciently written in English *veray*. The rule above laid down is one of the best established in the language ; and had not grammarians been blinded

REMARK 8.

Adjectives sometimes qualify verbs and adverbs; as, *a bell sounds clear*; *a stream works clear*; *the sun shines bright or warm*; *he came quick*; *he lives high*; *he rides single*; *it polishes smooth*; *he was very coldly received*; *it was planted full seasonably*.\*

FALSE CONSTRUCTION.

*That 1 pens want mending.* *That 2 books are torn.*  
*These 3 is a fine day.* *That 4 will make excellent scholars.*  
*These 5 lad will be an honor to his friends.* *This 6 ladies*  
behave with modesty.

" To

blinded by a veneration for the learned languages, the rule would not have passed to this time undiscovered. Some eminent critics have condemned such combinations as, *extreme cold*, *wondrous wise*; but these expressions are in exact conformity to the English idiom. To prove this we need only to advert to this fact, most of such phrases which have gained an undisputed establishment, are of Saxon origin. The phrases, *extremely cold*, *severely virtuous*, are good English; and indeed we should all pronounce *severe virtuous* bad English. But whoever heard of *verily cold*, *mostly excellent*? Perhaps it will be said, that *very*, *most*, *full*, &c. in such phrases, are used *adverbially*. This is a pitiful substitute for truth. The truth is, the Saxon idiom was to use one adjective to qualify another; and this idiom stands its ground in the Saxon branch of the language; but the Latin idiom, that an adjective is qualified by an adverb, has been introduced with the derivatives from the Roman tongue. Both idioms are good in English; both are derived from the highest antiquity, and stand on the immovable basis of *general undisputed practice*, the foundation of all languages on earth.

\* I think no person will deny the examples above to be good English, or that the adjectives are added to the verbs to denote some quality of action or being. *A bell sounds clear* is good English; indeed *clearly* would be very awkward. Yet *clear* denotes the manner of a bell's sounding.

*Very coldly* is most clearly good English; and will any person say *very* is an adverb? These are remains of the Saxon idioms which grammarians have no authority to condemn. Indeed in Latin derivatives, I should prefer the union of an adjective with an adverb, to that of two adverbs. *Extreme suddenly*, though seldom used, is a better phrase than *extremely suddenly*.

1 These. 2 those. 3 this. 4 those. 5 this. 6 these.

"To diversify *these\** kind of informations, the industry of the female world is not to be unobserved.

*Spect. No. 428.*

RULE 5.

The relative pronoun must agree with its antecedent in number, gender and person.

EXAMPLES.

1. This is the boy, *who* studies with diligence ; *he* will make a scholar.
2. The girl, *who* sits by you, is very modest ; *she* will be a very amiable woman.
3. The pen, *which* you gave me, is good ; *it* writes very well.

EXPLANATION.

In the first example, *boy* the antecedent, is masculine gender ; therefore *who* and *he*, the relative and pronoun, must be masculine.

In the second, *girl* the antecedent, is feminine ; therefore the relative *who* and pronoun *she* are feminine.

In the third, *pen* the antecedent is neuter, or of neither gender ; therefore the relative *which* and pronoun *it* must be used ; these standing for things without life.

REMARK.

The antecedent is sometimes omitted ; as, "give tribute to whom tribute is due :" that is, to the person to whom tribute is due.

The relative is often omitted ; as, "the man I saw ;" "the thing I want ;" that is, "the man *whom* I saw ;" "the thing *which* I want."

FALSE CONSTRUCTION.

He *which* 1 is not contented with the goods of fortune, *whom* 2 he now enjoys, must expect to be unhappy, even with greater possessions. He *which* 3 delights in villainy, must be rewarded with the infamy *whom* 4 he deserves.

His sister, *which* 5 is much beloved by *bis* 6 acquaintance, for *its* 7 virtue and good sense, is older than I am ; *be* 8 sings and dances well, and *bis* 9 good breeding and sweetness

\* This kind.

1 Who. 2 which. 3 who. 4 which. 5 who. 6 her.  
7 her. 8 she. 9 her.

sweetness of temper are the admiration of *its* <sup>11</sup> *to* <sup>12</sup> companions.

Virtue is *his* <sup>11</sup> own reward. In this life *she* <sup>12</sup> affords peace of mind to those *which* <sup>13</sup> possess him. <sup>14</sup>

N. B. *Who* is both masculine and feminine; referring to persons of both sexes: *Which* is applied to things without life, and to brutes.

The relative pronouns are the same in both numbers.

#### RULE 6.

If no nominative comes between the relative and the verb, the relative is the nominative.

#### EXAMPLES.

This is the man, *who taught* rhetoric. The estates of those *who have* taken arms against their country, ought to be confiscated. We have a constitution *which secures* our rights.

#### EXPLANATION.

In these expressions, there being no nominative between the relatives *who* and *which*, and the verbs, *taught*, *have*, and *secures*, therefore the relatives are the nominatives.

#### REMARK.

The verb *to be* has a nominative after it, as well as before it; as, “*it was I*;” “*ye are they* who justify yourselves.” For this reason, this passage seems to be ungrammatical, “*whom do men say that I am?*” Matth. xvi. 13. It ought to be *who*, governed of *an*.

But in the infinitive mode, an objective case follows *be*; as, “*I thought it to be him*;” you believe it to be *me*.”

#### RULE 7.

But if a nominative comes between the relative and the verb, the relative is governed by the following verb, or some other word.

#### EXAMPLES.

This is the man *whom I esteem*, *whose virtues merit* distinction, and *whom I am happy to oblige*.

#### EXPLANATION.

There being the nominative *I* between the relative *whom* and the verb *esteem*, *whom* is in the objective case, governed

*to her, 11 its, 12 it, 13 who, 14 it,*

governed by the transitive verb *esteem*. The next relative denoting possession, is put in the possessive case, *whose*; *virtues* being the nominative to *merit*. In the last member of the sentence, *whom* is governed of *oblige*; there being a nominative *I* between the relative and the verb *am*.

N. B. The compounds of *who* follow the same rule. "Whoever I am;" "Whomsoever you please to appoint."

#### FALSE CONSTRUCTION.

The boys, *who* 1 I admire, are those that study. The women, *who* 2 I saw, were very handsome. The servant, *who* 3 you sent, is not returned. *Who* 4 should I meet the other day. *Who* 5 should I see but my old friend. The boy, *whom* 6 loves study will be beloved by his instructor. The ladies, *whom* 7 possess modesty, are always respected.

#### RULE 8.

Two nouns, signifying the same thing, must be in the same case and are said to be in apposition; as, "Paul the Apostle;" "Alexander the conquerer."

But if they signify different things, and imply property, the first is put in the possessive case, by adding *s*, separated from the word by an apostrophe.

#### EXAMPLES.

This is *John's* paper. We admire a *man's* courage and a *lady's* virtue.

#### EXPLANATION.

The words *John's*, *man's*, *lady's*, denote property, and are in the possessive case.

The same ideas may be thus expressed; "this is the paper of John. We admire the courage of a man, and the virtue of a lady."

#### REMARK 1.

In common discourse, the name of the thing possessed is generally omitted; as, St. Paul's; Mr. Addison's; that is, St. Paul's Church; Mr. Addison's house.

#### REMARK 2.

The apostrophe ought always to be placed in the possessive case to distinguish it from the plural number.

Thus,

<sup>1</sup> Whom, <sup>2</sup> whom, <sup>3</sup> whom, <sup>4</sup> whom, <sup>5</sup> whom, <sup>6</sup> who,  
<sup>7</sup> who,

Thus, “see the *lad's* manners,” is possessive; but, “the *lads* have no manners,” is plural.

FALSE CONSTRUCTION.

See that *boys* 8 impudence; he disobeys his *masters* 9 orders. That *girls* 10 bonnet is awry. *John* his 11 book is lost. This is *George* his 12 paper. The *kings* 13 edict is published.

RULE 9.

Transitive verbs govern the objective case.

EXAMPLES.

1. I admire *her*. She saw *him*. The Scripture directs *us*.
2. Religion honors its *votaries*. Shame follows *vice*.

EXPLANATION.

1. The verbs *admire*, *saw*, *directs*, are transitive, and govern the pronouns *her*, *him*, *us*, in the objective case.
2. *Honors* and *follows*, being transitive verbs, are said to govern the words *votaries* and *vice*, which express the objects of their influence.

REMARK 1.

Sometimes the personal pronouns and always the relatives, *who*, *which*, *what*, *that*, are placed before the verb that governs them.

Pro. and Rel. Governed by the Verbs.

*Whom* ye ignorantly worship.

*Him* declare I unto you.

*Whom* do you see?

*Which* will you take?

REMARK 2.

Participles may govern the same cases as their verbs; as, “I am viewing a fine prospect; I have moved them.” Here *viewing* and *moved* are participles, yet govern the words *prospect* and *them*.

N. B. As few or no errors are committed under this rule, it is needless to give examples of false construction.

RULE 10.

The answer must be in the same case, as the question; it being always governed by the verb that asks the question, though the verb is not expressed.

EXAMPLES.

8 boy's. 9 master's. 10 girl's. 11 John's. 12 George's  
13 king's.

## EXAMPLES.

Questions.	Answers.
Who wrote this book ?	George.
Who is this ?	He.
Whom do you see ?	Them.
Whom do you admire ?	Her.

## EXPLANATION.

In the two first questions, *who*, the word that asks the question, is in the nominative ; and so are the answers *George* and *he*. In the two last, *whom* is in the objective, and so are the answers *them* and *her*.

The propriety of this will better appear by expressing the questions and answers at large.

## Questions. Answers.

Who wrote this book ?	George wrote it.
Who is this ?	It is he.
Whom do you see ?	I see them.
Whom do you admire ?	I admire her.

## RULE II.

Prepositions govern the objective case.

## EXAMPLES.

I write for him. Give the box to her. You will ride with them, or with us.

## EXPLANATION.

*For*, *to* and *with*, are prepositions and require the pronouns *him*, *her*, *them* and *us* to be in the objective case.

## REMARK 1.

The preposition may be omitted with propriety ; as, " give me the book ;" that is, *to* me. " I will go next Monday ;" that is, *on* next Monday.

## REMARK 2.

Formerly prepositions joined with adverbs, supplied the place of pronouns ; thus,

Herewith	with this
wherewith	with which
thereto	to that
thereat	at that
thereby	by that
whereby	by which
whereunto	to which
whereof	of which
wherein	in which

But these are going into disuse.

Note.

Note. Prepositions are sometimes prefixed to adverbs; as, *to where*, *from where*, *over where*, &c. This is only an elliptical form of expression; the word *place*, or some word of the same import, being implied. For example; “The western limit of the United States extends along the middle of the river Mississippi, *to where* it intersects the thirty-first degree of north latitude;” that is, *to the place where*. But the phrase is by no means elegant.

Note, further, That prepositions are often placed after verbs, and become a part of them; being essential to the meaning. Thus, in the phrases, *to fall on*, *to give over*, *to cast up* (an account) the particles *on*, *over*, *up*, are essential to the verbs to which they are annexed, because on them depends the meaning of the phrases. This sort of verbs is purely Saxon; they are often very significant, and their place cannot always be supplied by any single word.

#### RULE 12.

Conjunctions connect like cases.

#### EXAMPLES.

*You and I were both present.* *He and she sit together.*  
*It was told to him and me.* *It is disagreeable to them and us.*

#### EXPLANATION.

The pronoun *you*, being in the nominative case, *I* is required to be there too, because it is coupled to *you* by the conjunction *and*. The case is the same with *he* and *she*; *him and me*; *them and us*; except that the four last are in the objective case.

#### REMARK.

When a comparison is made between different persons or things, the word that follows *than*, is not governed of it, but of some verb or preposition implied; thus,

You are taller than <i>I</i>	Are better under- stood thus,	You are taller than <i>I am</i> .
<i>he</i> is older than <i>she</i>		<i>he</i> is older than <i>she is</i> .
<i>we</i> are younger than <i>they</i>		<i>we</i> are younger than <i>they are</i> .
<i>you</i> think him handsome- (er than <i>me</i> )		<i>you</i> think him handsomer (than you think <i>me</i> ).
<i>she</i> sings as well as <i>he</i>		<i>she</i> sings as well as <i>he</i> sings.
<i>I</i> write as well as <i>you</i>		<i>I</i> write as well as <i>you</i> write.

FALSE.

## 48 A GRAMMATICAL INSTITUTE

### FALSE CONSTRUCTION.

"It was agreeable to him and *I* 1, that we and *them* 2 should study together. It was told to us and *ye* 3. Will he go with you and *I* 4? Neither she nor *him* 5 was there. He taught both me and *she* 6. Either you or *me* 7 must go. Neither they nor *us* 8 were present. John and *me* 9 are not good scholars.

N. B. The relative *who* after *than*, is improper; it ought always to be *whom*, in the objective; as, "we have a general, *than whom* Europe cannot produce a greater character."

### RULE 13.

The infinitive mode follows a verb, a noun, or an adjective.

### EXAMPLES.

1. It follows a verb; as, let us learn to practise virtue.
2. A noun; as, you have a fine opportunity to learn.
3. An adjective; as, my friend is worthy to be trusted.

### EXPLANATION.

In the first example, *practise*, is a verb in the infinitive mode, following the verb *learn*.

In the second, *learn*, is in the infinitive, following the noun *opportunity*.

In the third, *be*, is in the infinitive, following the adjective *worthy*.

### REMARK 1.

The infinitive mode or part of a sentence often has the nature of a noun; and does the office of a nominative or objective case.

Of a nominative; as	{	Of an objective; as,
To play is pleasant.	{	I love to play.
to study is useful.	{	I hate to quarrel.
to be virtuous is wise.	{	I desire to learn.

### REMARK 2.

The infinitive mode is often made absolute or independent on the sentence; as, "to confess the truth I was in fault;" "but to proceed;" "to conclude," &c. This mode of expression may be resolved into the subjunctive; thus,

1 me. 2 they. 3 you. 4 me. 5 he. 6 her. 7 I. 8 we. 9 I.

thus, “that I may confess the truth; that I may proceed; that I may conclude,” &c.

REMARK 3.

It is a general rule in the language that *to* is a sign of the infinitive mode; but we have a few verbs that will admit of another verb after them in the infinitive without *to*, such as, *bid, dare, need, make, see, hear, feel*; as, “he has bid me do it.” not “*bid me to do it.*”

RULE 14.

A participle, with a preposition preceding it, answers to the Latin gerund, and may govern an objective case.

EXAMPLES.

<i>By avoiding evil.</i>	<i>By shunning him.</i>
<i>by doing good.</i>	<i>in observing them.</i>
<i>by seeking peace; and</i>	<i>for esteeming us.</i>
<i>by pursuing it.</i>	<i>by punishing them.</i>

EXPLANATION.

The participles *avoiding, doing, seeking, &c.* govern the objective words *evil, good, &c.*

REMARK 1.

But a participle with an article before it, generally has the nature of a noun, and may have the preposition *of* after it.

<i>By the avoiding of evil.</i>	<i>By the observing of which.</i>
<i>by the doing of good.</i>	<i>by the punishing of whom.</i>

The following expressions seem to be not grammatical:

<i>By the avoiding which</i>	<i>By avoiding of which</i>
<i>neither { by the doing which</i>	<i>nor { by doing of which</i>
<i>                  by the observing them }</i>	<i>                  by observing of them .</i>

Either *the* before the participle and *of* after it, ought both to be used, or both to be omitted.

But our best writers always have used the article before the participle, without the preposition after it, and in some instances it is not avoided without difficulty.

REMARK 2.

Participles often become mere adjectives, denoting a quality, and as such admit of comparison; thus,

Pos. Com. Super.

*A learned—more learned—most learned man.*

*a loving—more loving—most loving father.*

*a feeling—more feeling—most feeling heart.*

## REMARK 3.

A participle, with an adverb, may be placed independent of the sentence ; as, "this, generally speaking, is a good rule."

Note. Instead of the participle in *ed*, some writers, particularly the poets, have used an adjective derived of a verb ; as, *devote*, *annihilate*, *exhaust* ; for *devoted*, *annihilated*, *exhausted*. But these are become obsolete.

## REMARK 4.

The participles in *ing* often have the nature both of nouns and verbs. They are preceded by an article, a noun, or pronoun possessive, and yet govern the objective case. These may be called *participial nouns*. They are much used in the language, and their place cannot always be well supplied by a different construction.

## EXAMPLES.

"I heard of his *seeing him*." "We seldom hear of a man's *despising wealth* ; or of a woman's *bating flattery*.

Sometimes two participles have the nature of a noun ; as, "I heard of his *being noticed*." "His *being praised* excited envy."

Some writers omit the sign of the possessive ; "we seldom hear of a man *despising wealth*." But this seems not so correct ; for the object of the verb is not so much the man, as his *contempt* of wealth. Besides the object of the verb, the thing heard, is an *act passed*, and consequently a noun ; rather than an *act performing*, which would make *despising* a proper participle. In this phrase, "a man *despising wealth* ;" *despising* is a proper participle. In this, a man's *despising wealth*, it is a noun, still governing *wealth*. The latter is the *participial noun*, and the most correct phrase.

## REMARK 5.

Some participles in *ing* have a passive signification. "The book is now *printing*." "Such articles are now *selling at vendue*."

## RULE 15.

A nominative case, joined with a participle, often stands independent of the sentence. This is called the *case absolute*.

## EXAMPLES.

## EXAMPLES.

*The sun being risen, it will be warm. They all consenting, the vote was passed. “ Jesus conveying himself away, a multitude being in that place.”*

## EXPLANATION.

The words in Italics are not connected with the other parts of the sentence, either by agreement or government; they are therefore in the case absolute, which, in English, is always the nominative.

## FALSE CONSTRUCTION.

*Him 1 being sick, the physician was called.*

*Him 2 being crazy, it was necessary to confine him.*

*Her 3 being dressed, she went to the assembly.*

*Them 4 being convened, they began business.*

*Us 5 knocking, the door was opened.*

## RULE 16.

An adverb must always stand near the word which it is designed to affect or modify.

1. It is placed before an adjective; as,

Adv.	Adj.
Very	wise.
Extremely	cold.
rigidly	just.

2. It is usually placed after a verb; as,

Verbs.	Adv.
To write	correctly.
to sing	sweetly.
to behave	politely.

3. It is placed between an auxiliary and a verb or participle; as,

Aux.	Adv.	Verbs or Part.
She was	elegantly	dressed.
she was	greatly	admired.
I have	often	seen.
he has been	much	celebrated.
we shall be	highly	pleased.
they will	soon	observe.

## REMARK I.

We use many adverbs before a single verb; as, “ I commonly eat at six o’clock;” and the adverb *never* is usually

<sup>x</sup> He. <sup>2</sup> he. <sup>3</sup> she. <sup>4</sup> they. <sup>5</sup> we.

usually placed before both verbs and auxiliaries; as, "I never will be seen there." But this seems not so elegant; as, "I will never be seen there."

## REMARK 2.

Two negatives destroy each other and amount to an affirmative; thus,

I do not know nothing	Are	I do know something
(about it.)	the	(about it.)
I did not hear nothing.	same	I did hear something.
I did not hear not one	in	I did hear one word.
(word.)	sense	he may get some.
he may not get none.	as	you can see some.
you cannot see none.		

## REMARK 3.

No stands alone in answer; as, Will you go? No. But if any other word is used, the negation is expressed by not; as, will they go? They will not.

No is used for not; as, "I will go, whether he will or no."

No is used as an adjective before nouns; as, no man, no house.

## RULE 17.

After the conjunctions, if, though, unless, except, whether, the auxiliary sign is sometimes omitted in the future time.

## EXAMPLES.

"Though he slay me yet will I trust in him."

Job xiii. 15.

"Unless he wash his flesh, he shall not eat of the holy things."

Lev. xxii. 6.

That is, "though he shall slay me," &c. "unless he shall wash," &c.\*

## REMARK

\* I cannot admit that these expressions belong to the present tense of the subjunctive mode. The ideas are clearly future, and the verbs are in the future in the original. In most instances where authors have used, "if I be," "if he be," "if he have," "if he say," &c. the phrases are resolvable into the future or the present form of the indicative, by supplying an auxiliary: "If he can or may be," "if he shall have," "if he should say." Most authors use the present and future of the subjunctive promiscuously; sometimes if he has or is, and at other times, if he have or be. It appears to me the distinction is very easy. The first belongs to the present, and the last to the future.

REMARK 1.

The conjunction may be elegantly omitted and the nominative be placed after the auxiliary; as, “had I been there,” instead of “if I had been there.” “Were I the person,” instead of “if I were the person.”

REMARK 2.

Some conjunctions have correspondent conjunctions, which ought to follow, in the subsequent part of the sentence.

EXAMPLES.

*Although our enemies were powerful, yet we defeated them.*

*Whether it was John, or Thomas.*

*Either the one or the other.*

*Neither the one nor the other.*

*As with the people, so with the priest.*

*Their troops were not so brave as ours.*

---

AN EXERCISE.

The following examples will teach children to distinguish the parts of speech, and enable them to understand their connection by agreement and government, according to the foregoing rules.\*

EXAMPLE.

“A woman who has merit, improved by a virtuous and refined education, retains, in her decline, an influence over the men, more flattering than even that of beauty. She is the delight of her friends, as formerly of her admirers.”

“Admirable would be the effects of such refined education, contributing no less to public good than to private happiness. A man, who at present must degrade himself into a sot or a coxcomb, in order to please the women,

\* This is called parsing. In this children may be much assisted by a Pocket Dictionary, which distinguishes the parts of speech. This method of parsing the English Language, which has been hitherto very little practised, is the only way to obtain a thorough knowledge of it.

women, would soon discover, that their favor is not to be gained, but by exerting every manly talent in public and private life; and the two sexes, instead of corrupting each other, would be rivals in the race of virtue. Mutual esteem would be to each a school of urbanity; and mutual desire of pleasing would give smoothness to their behavior, delicacy to their sentiments, and tenderness to their passions."

*Home's Hist. Man. Sketch 6.*

The foregoing paragraphs may be thus parsed.

<i>A</i>	The indefinite article.
<i>woman</i>	A noun, in the singular number, nominative case to the verb <i>retains</i> .
<i>who</i>	A relative pronoun, referring to <i>woman</i> , its antecedent, nominative case to the verb <i>has</i> . Rule 6.
<i>has</i>	A transitive verb, in the indicative mode, present time, third person singular, agreeing with its nominative <i>who</i> . Rule 6.
<i>merit</i>	A noun, in the singular number, objective case after <i>has</i> . Rule 9.
<i>improved</i>	A participle, from the verb <i>improve</i> , in the nature of an adjective, agreeing with <i>merit</i> . Rule 4.
<i>by</i>	A preposition.
<i>a</i>	Indefinite article.
<i>virtuous</i>	An adjective, agreeing with <i>education</i> . Rule 4.
<i>and</i>	A conjunction, connecting <i>virtuous</i> and <i>refined</i> . Rule 12.
<i>refined</i>	A participle, in the nature of an adjective, agreeing with <i>education</i> . Rule 4.
<i>education</i>	A noun singular, governed by the preposition <i>by</i> . Rule 11.
<i>retains</i>	A verb trans. ind. pres. 1st form 3d person singular, agreeing with its nominative <i>woman</i> . Rule 1.
<i>in</i>	A preposition.
<i>her</i>	A pronominal adjective, agreeing with <i>decline</i> . Rule 4.
<i>decline</i>	A noun, sing. governed by <i>in</i> . Rule 11.

an	Indefinite article, for <i>a</i> , because the following word begins with a vowel.
influence	A noun sing. governed by <i>retains</i> . Rule 9.
over	A preposition.
the	The definite article.
men	A noun, plural, governed by <i>over</i> . Rule 11.
more	An adverb.
flattering	A participle, in the nature of an adjective, derived from <i>flatter</i> , agreeing with <i>influence</i> . Rule 4.
than	A conjunction.
even	An adverb.
that	A relative pronoun in the room of <i>influence</i> .
of	A preposition.
beauty :	A noun, governed by <i>of</i> . Rule 11.
She.	A pronoun, feminine gender, nom. to <i>is</i> .
is	An intransitive verb, ind. present tense, 3d. person sing. agreeing with <i>She</i> . Rule 1.
the	Definite article.
delight	A noun, sing. nom. after <i>is</i> . Remark on Rule 6.
of	
her	A pronominal adj. agreeing with <i>friends</i> . Rule 4.
friends	A noun, plural, governed by <i>of</i> . Rule 11.
as	A conjunction.
formerly	An adverb, from <i>former</i> .
of	
her	
admirers:	A noun, plural, governed by <i>of</i> . Rule 11.
admirable	An adjective, agreeing with <i>effects</i> . Rule 4; placed before <i>he</i> . Exception 4 to Rule 4.
would be	<i>Would</i> , an auxiliary, <i>be</i> , a verb intransitive, indicative, present, 3d person plural, agreeing with <i>effects</i> . Rule 1.
the	
effects	A noun, plural, nominative to <i>would be</i> , by Remark 1, on Rule 1.
of	
such	
refined	An adjective, referring to <i>education</i> . Rule 4.
education	As before.
	As before.
	contributing

<i>contributing</i>	A participle, agreeing with <i>education</i> . Rule 4.
<i>no</i>	An adverb.
<i>less</i>	An adverb.
<i>to</i>	A preposition.
<i>public</i>	An adjective, agreeing with <i>good</i> . Rule 4.
<i>good</i>	An adjective, used as a noun. Remark 5. Rule 4, governed by <i>to</i> . Rule 11.
<i>than</i>	A conjunction.
<i>to</i>	
<i>private</i>	An adj. agreeing with <i>happiness</i> . Rule 4.
<i>happiness.</i>	A noun, singular, governed by <i>to</i> . Rule 11.
<i>A</i>	
<i>man</i>	A noun, sing. nominative to <i>would discover</i> .
<i>who</i>	A relative, nom. to <i>must degrade</i> . Rule 6.
<i>at present</i>	An adverb, a contract. of <i>at the present time</i> .
<i>must degrade</i>	A verb trans. ind. present, 6th form, 3d person sing. agreeing with <i>who</i> . Rule 1.
<i>himself</i>	A pronoun, objective case, gov. by <i>degrade</i> . Rule 9.
<i>into</i>	A preposition.
<i>a</i>	Indefinite article.
<i>fop</i>	A noun sing. governed by <i>into</i> . Rule 11.
<i>or</i>	
<i>a</i>	A conjunction.
<i>coxcomb</i>	A noun, sing. connected with <i>fop</i> , by <i>or</i> . Rule 12.
<i>in</i>	
<i>order</i>	A noun, sing. governed by <i>in</i> . Rule 11.
<i>to-please</i>	A verb transitive, infinitive mode, 1st form following the noun <i>order</i> . Rule 13, 2.
<i>the</i>	
<i>women</i>	A noun, plu. governed by <i>please</i> . Rule 9.
<i>would discover</i>	A verb trans. ind. pres (pp) 3d person . sing. agreeing with <i>man</i> . Rule 1.
<i>soon</i>	An adverb.
<i>that</i>	A conjunction.
<i>their</i>	A pron. adj. agreeing with <i>favor</i> . Rule 4.
<i>favor</i>	A noun sing. nominative to <i>is</i> .
<i>is</i>	A verb intrans. ind. pres. 3d person sing. agreeing with <i>favor</i> . Rule 1.
<i>not</i>	An adverb.

to be	A verb intrans. infinitive mode.
gained	A participle, agreeing with <i>favor</i> .
but	A conjunction.
by	A preposition.
exerting	A participle, governing <i>talent</i> . Rule 14.
every	A distributive pronominal adj. agreeing with <i>talent</i> . Rule 4.
manly	An adj. agreeing with <i>talent</i> .
talent	A noun sing. gov. by <i>exerting</i> , by Remark 2, on Rule 9.
in	
public	An adj. agr. with <i>life</i> understood. Rule 4.
and	
private	An adjective, agreeing with <i>life</i> .
and	
the	
two	
sexes	An adj. agr. with <i>sexes</i> . Rule 4.
instead	A noun, plur. nom. to <i>would be</i> .
of	An adverb.
corrupting	A participle. Rule 14.
each	A distrib. pron. adj. agreeing with <i>other</i> . Rule 4.
other	A pron. adj. standing for a noun. Remark 5, on Rule 4; gov. by <i>corrupting</i> . Remark 2, Rule 9.
would be	A verb intrans. ind. pres. 3d person plural, agreeing with <i>sexes</i> . Rule 1.
rivals	A noun, plur. nom. after <i>be</i> . Rule 6, Remark.
in	
the	
ace	A noun, sing. gov. by <i>in</i> . Rule 11.
of	
virtue.	A noun sing. gov. by <i>of</i> . Rule 11.
Mutual	An adjective, agreeing with <i>esteem</i> . Rule 4.
esteem	A noun, singular, nominative to <i>be</i> .
would be	As before, 3d person sing. agreeing with <i>esteem</i> . Rule 1.
so	
each	A distrib. pron. adj. standing for <i>sex also</i> . Rule 4, Remark 5, gov. by <i>so</i> . Rule 11.

<i>a school</i>	A noun sing. nom. after <i>be.</i> Remark on Rule 6.
<i>of urbanity</i>	A noun. sing. governed by <i>of.</i> Rule 11.
<i>and mutual desire</i>	An adjective, agreeing with <i>desire.</i> Rule 4. A noun, sing. nom. to <i>would give.</i>
<i>of pleasing</i>	A participle, governed by <i>of.</i> Rule 14.
<i>would give</i>	<i>Give</i> is a trans. verb, 1nd. present, No. 11, 3d person singular, agreeing with <i>desire.</i> Rule 1.
<i>smoothness</i>	A noun, governed by <i>give.</i> Rule 9.
<i>to their behavior</i>	A pron. adj. agr. with <i>behavior.</i> Rule 4. A noun, sing. governed by <i>to.</i> Rule 11.
<i>delicacy</i>	A noun, sing. gov. by <i>give,</i> understood. Rule 9.
<i>to their sentiments</i>	As before, agreeing with <i>sentiments.</i> A noun plural, governed by <i>to.</i> Rule 11.
<i>and tenderness</i>	A noun, singular, connected by <i>and</i> to <i>deli-</i> <i>cacy,</i> or governed by <i>give,</i> understood. Rule 9.
<i>to their passions.</i>	As before, agreeing with <i>passions.</i> A noun, plural, gov. by <i>to.</i> Rule 11.

## APPENDIX.





## A P P E N D I X.

---

**T**HE English, in order to express precise periods of time, or other circumstances, combine the auxiliaries with the principal verb, or with the participles, or with each other, in a great variety of ways. But this is not all—The auxiliaries, and even the principal verbs, vary their tenses. The present tense of *will* and *shall* are used for the future ; *could*, *might* and *would* are used in the present and past ; *should*, is used in all the tenses ; and even the past tense of principal verbs, is used, in the subjunctive mode, as one form of the present. These circumstances render it necessary, that the various combinations of verbs, auxiliaries and participles should be particularly explained.

For this reason, I will set down the combinations under each mode and tense, and number them for the convenience of the learner. A boy need not puzzle himself with committing them to memory ; it will be sufficient to read them frequently, and in parsing, turn to them, as occasion may require.

The Latin phrase corresponding to each form is given in notes, with a view to assist foreigners in acquiring the true signification and force of our verbs. I will not aver that I have, in all instances, given the full force of the English phrases ; perhaps it is not possible ; or if possible, I may have overlooked the proper Latin expressions. But the translations here annexed may perhaps be as near the sense, as the idioms of the two languages will admit. It will readily be observed, that, in the Latin, more care has been taken to express the true sense of the English, than to render the Latin phrases, *Roma.* The

The word *form*, is used instead of *combination*, merely because it is shorter.

### GENERAL RULE.

The auxiliary *have*, is used before participles in *a*, *t*, and *n*. *Be* is used before all participles. The other helping words are used before the radical form of the verbs.

### EXAMPLE.

#### *Radical Form.*

*Write.*

I may  
I do  
I can  
I must  
I might  
I could  
I shall  
I will  
I should  
I would

#### *Past Time.*

wrote.

#### *Participles.*

writing—written.

write.	I am writing.
	It was written.
	He was taught.
	She was loved.
	I have written.
	I have moved.
	He was taught.

The past time *wrote*, cannot be preceded by a helping word, in any possible case.

When an auxiliary precedes a verb, the auxiliary only is varied ; as, “ I may go, thou *mayest* go.”

When two or more auxiliary words are used, the first only is varied ; as, “ I *would* have gone, thou *wouldst* have gone.”

*What is the radical form of a verb?*

It is that form of the verb to which the particle *to* may be prefixed.

### INFINITIVE MODE.

#### *First Form.*

No. 1.

To write or to love.

*Explanation.* This radical form of the verb expresses action or being in general, without limitation of person or number.

#### *Second Form.*

No. 2.

To be writing or loving.

This form represents an action as now passing, but without reference to person or number.

#### *Third*

*Latin.] No. 1. Scribere. No. 2. In scribendo versari.*

## Third Form.

No. 3.

To have written or loved.

This form represents an action past, without reference to person or number.

## Fourth Form.

No. 4.

To have been writing or loving.

This form speaks of an action as just now past, or as passing while some other action was performing. It has no reference to person or number.

*Note.* The English have two forms of speaking, to denote the beginning of action; as, “*I am about to write;*” “*I am going to write.*” These are the verbs *be* with the adverb *about* or participle *going*, placed before the radical form of the principal verb.

## INDICATIVE MODE. Present Time.

## First Form.

No. 5.

Singular.

Plural.

1 I write	1 We
2 Thou writest	2 Ye or you
3 He, she, or it writeth or writes.	3 They

write.

This form of the verb declares or shews an action. It speaks of a present fact; as, *it rains*; or of the existence of a thing in general, without reference to a particular time; *a man writes a good hand.*

## Second Form.

No. 6.

I am	We
Thou art	Ye or you
He is	They

This form marks precisely the time of action: It denotes that an action is now performing.

## Third Form.

No. 7.

I do	We
Thou dost	Ye or you
He does or doth	They

do write.

No. 3. Scripsisti. No. 4. In scribendo versatum fuisse. No. 5. scribo. No. 6. In scribendo versor. No. 7. Ego equidem scribo.

\* This ending of verbs in *t:b* is used only in the solemn style, or in addresses to the Deity. The familiar style requires the other ending; *be writes.*

This form speaks of an action with certainty or emphasis.

#### Fourth Form.

No. 8.

I may	{	We
Thou mayest		write, or
He may		be writing. Ye or you

They may write.

This form expresses liberty or possibility. In the latter sense, it often, perhaps generally, refers to a future action:

"I may go to-morrow, but it is uncertain."

#### Fifth Form.

No. 9.

I can	{	We
Thou canst		write, or
He can		be writing. Ye or you

They can write.

This denotes the power of doing an action. It often refers to a future power; as, "I can go to-morrow, or next week."

#### Sixth Form.

No. 10.

I must	{	We
Thou must		write, or
He must		be writing. Ye or you

They must write.

This denotes some kind of necessity, either natural or moral. It is used also to express an indispensable duty.

*Note.* *Would* is often used in the present tense indicative; as, "I would not chuse to drink." This is an absolute declaration; and it would be more strictly grammatical to say, "I do not chuse to drink." The former may however be more modest and delicate; as it seems to imply a degree of condescension to the will of another. *Should* is also used in this tense; particularly in the second and third persons, expressing obligation. "You should visit your neighbour who is sick," is a declaration of duty. "Your son should begin to read French at ten years of age," is an unconditional assertion. *Should*, in these forms of speech, answers to *ought*, and properly belongs to the indicative mode. An emphasis on *should*, in the first person, gives it the force of duty.

#### Seventh

No. 8. *Licet mihi scribere vel licet mihi in scribendo versari; vel est possibile me scripturum.* No. 9. *Scribere possum vel in scribendo versari possum.* No. 10. *Necessere est me scribere, vel necesse est me in scribendo versari,*

		Seventh Form.	No. 11.
I should		We	
Thou shouldst	write or	Ye or you	should write.
He should	be writing.	They	

I would write      } All these are sometimes used as declaratory phrases, though followed by a  
 I might write      } condition. See the forms at large.  
 I could write      }

No. 29. 21. 25.

	Past Time.	No. 12.
I wrote or loved	We	
Thou wrotest or lovedst	Ye or you	wrote or lov'd.
He wrote or loved	They	

This speaks of an action that is past, and it refers to any period of time either near or distant. We use this form when we specify the particular time; as, the day, month, or year, when an action was done; as, "I wrote a letter last June." But it is not correct to say, "I have written a letter last June."

Second Form.

No. 13.

I was	We	
Thou wast	Ye or you	were writing.
He was	They	

This tells the time of action, and commonly speaks of an action which was taking place, during some other transaction.

Third Form.

No. 14.

I did	We	
Thou didst	Ye or you	did write.
He did	They	

This

No. 11. *Scribere debeo.**Scribere vellam**Scribere mihi licerer**Scribere possem*

sometimes used.

No. 12. *Scripsi.* No. 13. *Scribbam vel in scribendo verabar.* No. 14. *Ego equidem scripti.*

\* Grammarians make this distinction between this and the 15th form. *I wrote*, they say, denotes an action not complete or perfectly past. *I have written*, an action, perfectly past. I beg to know of such writers, whether in this sentence, "I wrote and sent a letter six months ago," the actions of writing and sending are not perfectly past.

This form refers to the same time as the 12th, *I wrote*; but *did* is added to express certainty or emphasis. See the explanation of the several uses of *ab*, page 18.

*Fourth Form.*

No. 15.

I have	written	We	
Thou hast	or	Ye or you	have written
He hath or has	loved.	They	or loved.

This form represents an action past, and commonly, as lately past; but is very indefinite as to time.

*Fifth Form.*

No. 16.

I have	been	We	have been
Thou hast	writing.	Ye or you	writing.
He hath or has		They	

This denotes that an action is just done. It also denotes the continuance of time employed; as, "I have been writing while you were absent."

*Sixth Form.*

No. 17.

I may	have	We	may have
Thou mayest	ten or lev.	Ye or you	written
He may	ed.	They	or loved.

This expresses a possibility that an action has been done.

*Seventh Form.*

No. 18.

I may	have been	We	may have
Thou mayest	writing.	Ye or you	been
He may		They	writing.

This denotes a possibility that a person has just been doing something.

*Eighth Form.*

No. 19.

I	must have	We	most have
Thou	written	Ye or you	written
He	or loved.	They	or loved.

This is used to express the necessity that existed of doing something; or when a speaker, judging from known facts or causes, is convinced that an event has taken place. *Must*, in this case, expresses a man's confidence.

*Ninth*

No. 15. *Scripti.* No. 16. *In scribendo versatus fui.* No. 17. *Foritan scripserim, vel est possibile me scripisse.* No. 18. *Foritan in scribendo versatus fui.* No. 19. *Non aliter scripsi potuit quin scriberem; vel certus sum me scripisse.*

## Tenth Form.

No. 20.

I      { must have been      We      { must have been  
 Thou { writing.      Ye or you { writing.  
 He      }                    They      }

This denotes a similar necessity, or certainty in the mind, that a person has just been performing an action, or was doing it during some other transaction.

## Eleventh Form.

No. 21.

I might      {                  We      {  
 Thou      { write.      Ye or you { might write.  
 He      {                    They      }

This denotes liberty or possibility in time past. (This form is principally used in negative and interrogative sentences, or after other verbs. The affirmative form of declaration in this tense is commonly, "I might have written." The same remark will apply to could, would and should.)

## Twelfth Form.

No. 22.

I      { might      {                  We      {  
 Thou      { mightest      { be writing.      Ye or you { might be  
 He      {                    They      }

This denotes, there was a possibility that a person was doing an action during some other transaction.

## Thirteenth Form.

No. 23.

I      { might      { have written      { We      { might have  
 Thou      { mightest      { or loved.      { Ye or you { written or  
 He      {                    They      }

This expresses the liberty or possibility of doing and completing an action in some past period.

## Fourteenth Form.

No. 24.

I      { might      { have been      { We      { might have  
 Thou      { mightest      { writing.      { Ye or you { been writing.  
 He      {                    They      }

This expresses liberty or possibility of doing an action at one past period, when something else was taking place.

An emphasis on *might* affects its meaning. When unemphatical, it implies possibility; an emphasis gives it the force

No. 20. Non aliter, &c. quis inscribendo versarer; vel certum me inscribendo versatum fuisse. No. 21. Ut scriberem bat. No. 22. Ut inscribendo versarer licetbat. No. 23. Scripsicuit. No. 24. In scribendo versatum fuisse liquit.

force of liberty or right. The first sense may be expressed in Latin by *est*, or *possibile*, or by *possit*.

## Fourteenth Form.

No. 25.

I could	We
Thou couldst	Ye or you
He could	They

This declares there was a power of doing an action.

## Fifteenth Form.

No. 26.

I could	We
Thou couldst	Ye or you
He could	They

This declares there was a power of doing something, during some other transaction.

## Sixteenth Form.

No. 27.

I could	We
Thou couldst	Ye or you
He could	They

This declares that a power existed, or completing an action at some past period of time.

## Seventeenth Form.

No. 28.

I could	We
Thou couldst	Ye or you
He could	They

This denotes a power of doing and continuing an action in some past time, and during another transaction.

## Eighteenth Form.

No. 29.

I would	We
Thou wouldest	Ye or you
He would	They

This declares that there was an inclination or an intention to do something. An emphasis on *would* expresses a more fixed determination. In the first person, it sometimes expresses a promise.

## Nineteenth Form.

No. 30.

I would	We
Thou wouldest	Ye or you
He would	They

Explained as the foregoing, except that it speaks of a continued action.

No. 25. *Scribere potui.* No. 26. *In scribendo versari potui.*  
 No. 27. *Scripsisse potui.* No. 28. *In scribendo versatum fuisse  
potui.* No. 29. *Scribere volebam.* No. 30. *In scribendo ver-  
ari volebam.*

	<i>Twentieth Form.</i>	No. 31.
I would have written	These speak of a past inclination or promise to do and complete an action. An emphasis on <i>would</i> gives it the force of fixed determination.	
We would have written		
He would have written		
Ye or you would have written		
They would have written		
	These express the intention of a person, some time ago. They suppose the speaker to be acquainted with the intention of the 2d or 3d person.	
Thou wouldst have written		
He wouldst have written		
Ye or you would have written		
They would have written		

	<i>Twenty-fifth Form.</i>	No. 32.
I would have been writing	These speak of past intention, &c. to be doing an action, during another transaction.	
We would have been writing		
Thou wouldst have been writing		
He would have been writing		
Ye or you would have been writing		
They would have been writing		
	In these expressions, the speaker tells the intention of another person to be doing, &c. as above.	

	<i>Twenty-second Form.</i>	No. 33.
I should have written	Should denotes event; but an emphasis gives it the force of duty.	
We should have written	In the first sense, it is commonly followed by a condition; "I should have written if I had had paper."	
They should have written	But in the last it is a declaration that it was a duty to finish an action.	
	Thou shouldst have written	
	He should have written	
	Ye or you should have written	
	They should have written	

No 31. *Scripsi* *volui.* In *scripsi* *versatum* *voluisse* *volui.* *Scripsi* *voluimus.* *Scripsisti.* *Scripsistis.* *Scripsit.* *Scripsistis.* *Scripsisse.*

No. 32. *In scribendo versatum fuisse volui.*  
*In scribendo versatos voluimus.*  
*In scribendo versatus fuisse.*

*In scribendo versati fuissent.*  
*versatis fuissent.*

No. 33. *Scripsi* *fuerat.* { with emphasis *would* happens.  
*Scripsissimus* } sense of obseruit,  
te

*aut illorum* { *Scripsi* *opportuit.*  
*vos*  
*illos*

• 15 •

**Theo Shvidk**

#### **He Should**

**You're on your five.**

we written  
or loved.

Should here implies obligation. With emphasis, it expresses authority, and is used only to inferiors; and commonly with a condition annexed; "If I had been your master, you should have written."

### Twenty-third Form.

No. 34.

I should } have been      Should may be explained as before ; but this form refers to a  
We should } writing.      continued action, during another transaction.

**Thou** shouldst      { have been      { **Should** signifies duty or  
**He** should            writing.            determination, as before ;  
**Ye** or **you** should     {                            but this form speaks of a  
**They** should            {                            continued action.

#### Twenty-fourth Form.

No. 35.

I had	written or	We
Thou hadst	loved.	Ye or you
He had		They

} had written.

This represents an action as past before some point of time mentioned; as, "I had written my letter before I received your's."

### Twenty-fifth Form.

No. 36.

J had      }      We      }  
Thou hadst } been writing. Ye or you } had been  
He had      }      They      } writing.

This denotes that an action was just finished, when something else took place.

## FUTURE

No. 34. In scribendo versatus suissim.

*versati suissimus*

In scribendo { te versatum  
illum versatum } fuisse cōpetuit.  
vos versatos  
illos versatos

No. 35. Scriptam. No. 36. In scribendo versatus fueram.

## FUTURE TIME.

## First Form.

No. 37.

I will write      } These express a promise to do an action.  
 We will write.    } [Will and shall are in themselves present time; but joined to a verb, they form the future.]

Thou wilt        } These foretel an event. The  
 He will         } speaker is supposed to be ac-  
 Ye or you will    } quainted with the intention of  
 They will       } the other person, and to found his declaration on that know-  
 } ledge.

## Second Form.

No. 38.

I shall write    } These foretel an action or event.  
 We shall write }

Thou shalt        } These, without emphasis,  
 He shall         } promise that the third person will do an action, shall, used in the second person, is always a command. In both  
 Ye or you shall    } persons they imply authority  
 They shall        } in the speaker.\*

## Third Form.

No. 39.

I will            } These promise, that an action  
 We will          } shall be performing, while something else is taking place.

## No. 37. Me scripturum polliceor.

Thou

Nos scripturos pollicemur.

Scribes

Scriber

Scribetis.

Scribent.

## No. 38. Scribam

Scribemus

Fac ut scribas

ut scribat      } vel volo.

ut scribatis    } te scribere.

ut scribant

## No. 39. In scribendo versari polliceor.

versari pollicemur.

In scribendo    } versatus eris

versatus erit

versati eritis

versati erunt.

\* Will, in a polite or modest manner, has the force of command, when directed to an inferior. "The Colonel will order his regiment to march at five o'clock;" is a very common and usual way of delivering commands to subordinate officers.

Thou wilt      }  
 He will      }  
 Ye or you will      }  
 They will      } be writing.—These foretel the same.

*Fourth Form.*

No. 40.

I shall      } be writing.—Foretel as in the last form.  
 We shall      }

Thou shalt

He shall

Ye or you shall

They shall

be writing.—Command, &amp;c. as above.

*Fifth Form.*

No. 41.

I will      } have written      } These promise, that, at some  
 We will      } or loved.      } future period, an action shall  
                 }      be finished. [Not much used.]

Thou wilt

He will

Ye or you will

They will

have written      } These foretel the same.

*Sixth Form.*

No. 42.

I shall      } have written      } Foretel, as above.  
 We shall      } or loved.      }

Thou shalt

He shall

Ye or you shall

They shall

have written      } Command, &c. as above  
                 } or loved.      } [Not much used.]*Seventh**No. 40. Inscribendo versatus ero.*

versati erimus.

Fac ut in scribendo

verseris

versetur

versemini

versentur.

*No. 41. Ut scripsero pollicor.*

Ut scripserimus pollicemur

Scripseris

Scripserit

Scripseritis

Scripserent.

*No. 42. Scripsero.*

Scripserimus

Ut scripseris volo

Ut scripserit, &amp;c.

Fac ut scripserit, &amp;c.

*Seventh Form.*

No. 43.

I will      } have been      } Promise, that, at some specified  
 We will    } writing.      } time, an action will have been  
continued and finished. [Not  
much used.]

Thou wilt      } have been      } Foretel, as before.  
 He will      } writing.      }  
 Ye or you will    } writing.      }  
 They will      } writing.      }

*Eighth Form.*

No. 44.

I shall      } have been      } Foretel, as above.  
 We shall    } writing.      }

Thou shalt      } have been      } Command, as above.  
 He shall      } writing.      }  
 Ye or you shall    } writing.      } [Not much used.]  
 They shall      } writing.      }

*How do the English express a command?*

Besides the use of *shall*, which may express a command, the radical form of the verb is used for the same purpose; as, *go*, *come*, *write*. This is always addressed to person, and *thou*, *ye or you*, is supposed to be understood; so *thou*, *come ye*.

*What other sense is annexed to this form?*

This mode of speaking is used to pray and exhort; as, "Grant thy blessing." "Let thou thy servant depart in peace." In this sense, and sometimes, in giving commands, *do* is employed; as, "Do you prepare a dinner at two o'clock."

## IMPERATIVE

No. 43. Pollicetur ut in scribendo versatus fuero.

Pollicemor ut in scribendo versati fuerimus

In scribendo versatus fueris

versatus fueris

versati fueritis

versati fuerint.

No. 44. In scribendo versatus fuero

versati fuerimus

Vole ut in scribendo versatus fueris.

versatus fueris

versati fueritis

versati fuerint.

## IMPERATIVE MODE.

*Write thou, or Write ye, or*

*Do thou write, or Do ye or you write.*

*Or thus, omitting the pronouns,*

*Write, or do write.*

A wish or prayer is also expressed by several of the auxiliary signs, with the pronoun following ; and this either with or without the interjection, Oh.

*May he be restored to health ; or,*

*O ! May he be restored !*

*Would be but spare my life !*

*O ! Might I behold my dear son !*

*Could be be restored to my longing eyes !*

*May* and *might* here preserve their usual distinction. *May* supposes uncertainty, and therefore expresses a prayer. *Might* supposes a thing which cannot probably happen, and therefore expresses a fruitless wish.

These expressions correspond, in some measure, with the Greek optative.

*How do the English express condition and uncertainty ?*

By prefixing some adverb or conjunction to the verb. Verbs subjunctive to other verbs in construction, or to adverbs and conjunctions implying doubt and condition, are said to be in the subjunctive mode.

*How is this mode formed ?*

By combinations of words, similar to those in the indicative. Note.

\* It is surprising, that Grammarians have made three persons in the imperative. These expressions, *let me write, let him write, let us write, and let them write*, appear to be the second person; for *let* has the sense of permit or suffer; *permit me to write, &c.* We do not address commands or exhortations to ourselves; *let me write* is not an address to myself, but to a second person, *let thou me*; that is, *permit me*. Nor do we address commands to a third person, except by means of a second. *Let him go*, is a command to a second person, or an order conveyed through a second to a third person. " *Let us go*, is either an exhortation to a number, among whom the speaker includes himself; or a command; as, *permit us to go*. In all these cases, the address is made to the second person.

† It has been the practice of some writers to omit the inflections of the regular verbs in the present time of the subjunctive. *If I write, if thou write, if he write.* But this form is generally an elliptical future; *if he should or shall write.*" This appears to be the genius of the language, and most modern writers use the proper form for the present; " *If thou writest, if he writes.*"

*Note.* — The same form of words which constitutes one tense in the indicative, constitutes sometimes a different tense in the subjunctive, and has a very different meaning. This renders a particular explanation necessary. But to save the trouble of exhibiting the whole form of words in this mode, the number placed against the first person, will refer the learner to the number in the indicative mode, where he will find the *form at large*. For example: No. 12, against *I wrote*, shows that this word has the same variations, as the twelfth number of the indicative.

*Note.* — The definite forms are not particularly explained in this mode. They have been so fully illustrated under the indicative, that it is only necessary to mention that “If I can write,” and, “If I can be writing,” are no otherwise different than this; the latter marks the time more precisely, or a continued action during some other transaction.

### S U B J U N C T I V E M O D E.

#### P R E S E N T T I M E.

Preceded by if, though, whether, except, unless.

If, &c. I write. No. 5. ind. { This denotes uncertainty in  
If, &c. I do write. No. 7. { the speaker's mind, whether  
an action exists or not.

If, &c. I am writing. No. 6. { Uncertainty whether an ac-  
tion is now performing or  
not.

If, &c. I wrote. No. 12. { This denotes a present certainty  
that an action does not exist.  
“If I wrote as well as you do,”  
implies that I do not write so well.

If, &c. I did write. No. 14.—This implies the same.

If, &c. I were writing. No. 45 \* { This denotes that  
the action is not  
now performing.

If, &c. I may write } No. 8. { Uncertainty whether  
or be writing. } there is liberty or not.

If, &c. I might write } No. 21. { Certainty that I may  
or be writing. } not write,

If

\* This form is peculiar to the subjunctive. I therefore number it 45: See the subjunctive of *be*.

If, &c. I can write } No. 9 { Uncertainty as to power of  
or be writing. } doing.

If, &c. I could write } No. 25 { Certainty that there is  
or be writing. } not power.

If, &c. I must write } No. 10. { Uncertainty whether  
or be writing. } there is a necessity or not.\*

If, &c. I would write } No. 29. { This supposes I have  
or be writing. } not an inclination.

*Note.* The auxiliary sign is sometimes omitted in the foregoing forms.

*Past Time.*

If, &c. I wrote } No. 12 { This implies uncertainty  
or was writing. } and 13. { as to a past action.

If, &c. I did write. No. 14 — The same.

If, &c. I have written } No. 15 { This denotes uncertain-  
or have been writing. } and 16. { ty as to an action past.

If, &c. I had written } No. 35 { This implies certainty  
or had been writing } and 36. { that an action has not  
{been done}}

If, &c. I might write } No. 21 { Uncertainty as to liberty or  
or be writing. } and 22 { possibility of a past action.

If, &c. I might have written } No. 23 { Certainty that there  
or have been writing. } & 24 { was not liberty or  
possibility.

If, &c. I could write } No. 25 { Uncertainty as to power  
or could be writing. } and 26 { of doing.

If, &c. I could have written } No. 27. { Certainty that there  
or have been writing. } and 28. { was not power.

If, &c. I must have written } No. 19 { Uncertainty, or  
or been writing. } and 20. { rather a conces-  
sion that there  
was a necessity of  
doing an action.  
If,

\* There is no form of *must* for expressing certainty. Instead of *must* we say, "If I were obliged," or "were not obliged."

|| This is sometimes used to convey an idea of uncertainty, and thea the correspondent tense for certainty is, "If I had have written." For example; "If he had written his letter before he received yours;" im-plies uncertainty in the speaker's mind. But if the speaker knows that he had not written his letter at that time, he would say, "If he had have written his letter, before he received yours." This tense is not used by good writers, nor is it noticed by grammarians. But it is frequently used by people in conversation, who contract *have* into a ; *had* a written ; it is analogous to the distinction in the other forms.

If, &c. I would write } No. 29  
or be writing. } and 30

Uncertainty as to inclination. [Seldom used, except after another verb —as, " he said that he would write ;" where it declares a former promise or intention.]

If, &c. I would have written } No. 31  
or have been writing. } and 32

Certainty as to intention past. It implies that I would not write.

If, &c. I should have written } No. 33  
or have been writing. } and 34

On condition an action had taken place.

#### Future Time.

If, &c. I will } write or We } will write  
Thou wilt } be writing. Ye or you } or  
He will } be writing. They } be writing.

On condition there shall be an inclination which shall prompt a person to act.

If, &c. I shall } write or We } shall write  
Thou shalt } be writing. Ye or you } or  
He shall } be writing. They } be writing.

On condition that an action shall be done.\*

If, &c. I should write or be writing. No. 11.

On condition an action shall be done. It conveys nearly the same idea, as, if I shall, and is commonly used instead of it. If any distinction can be observed, it is this ; that shall refers to a future event that is expected ; and should is used when an event is not much expected, but spoken of by way of supposition.

If, &c. I shall have written } No. 42  
or have been writing } and 44  
or should, &c.

On condition that at a future period an action shall be finished.

*Note.* The auxiliary is often omitted in this tense ; thus,  
If, &c. I write      We write

Thou write      Ye or you write      No. 46.  
He write      They write      Participles

\* It must be remarked that shall and will, should and would, in the subjunctive mode, drop the distinction of meanings in the different persons ; except in some cases when an emphasis may preserve it.

Participles	writing	loving
	written-	loved
	having written	having loved.

*Note.* *Do* and *have* are often principal verbs; but it is unnecessary to exhibit them at large; as by means of their participles *done* and *had* added to the auxiliaries, we have all their forms.

*Note.* The subjunctive mode may, in most instances, be resolved into the indicative. It is certain that the words, called conjunctions, which are said to govern the subjunctive mode, are the imperatives of old Saxon verbs. See the article, Abbreviations.

Thus, “*If ye love me ye will keep my commandments,*” is resolvable into the indicative and imperative. “*Ye love me, give or grant that, ye will keep my commandments.*” “*I though he slay me, yet will I trust in him,*” is simply this, “*Grant, allow that he shall slay me, still I will trust in him.*” “*Unless he wash his flesh,*” &c. is literally this, “*He shall wash his flesh, dismiss that condition, he shall not eat of the holy things.*” Indeed we, to this day, preserve this Saxon mode of speaking in innumerable instances. We use *suppose* and *on condition*, instead of *if* and *though*. “*Suppose he slay me, yet,*” &c. would be good English.

This theory of the verbs, which is well established, overthrows the rule of grammarians with respect to the subjunctive. The verb *were*, in the present time, is the only verb, whose variations are not found in the indicative. I have however preserved the subjunctive; as the combinations of verbs, which follow the Saxon abbreviations, have particular uses which cannot well be explained under the indicative.

#### INTERROGATIVE SENTENCES.

*How are questions asked in the English language?*

By placing the pronoun, or other nominative case, after the verb or first helping verb. Thus:

Have I ? Have we ?

Hast thou ? } Have ye or you ?  
have you ? }

Has he ? or } Have they ?  
hath he ? }

Give an example in the several times.

Present

*Present Time.*

Am I ?	Will I ?
Can I ?	Do I ?
May I ?	Do I turn ?
Shall I ?	Dost thou turn ? &c.

*Past Time.*

Had I ?	Would I ?
Was I ?	Did I ?
Could I ?	Did I turn ?
Might I ?	Didst thou turn ? &c.
Should I ?	

Had I been ?	Had I have turned ?
Could I have been ?	Might I have turned ?
Might I have been ?	Could I have turned ?
Should I have been ?	Should I have turned ?
Would I have been ?	Would I have turned ?

*Future Time.*

Shall I be ?	Shall I have been ?
Wilt thou be ?	Wilt thou have been ?*

*How are negative sentences formed, that is, how do we deny any thing?*

By placing the word *not* after the verb or first helper.

*Examples, in present time.*

I am not	We are not
Thou art not	Ye or you are not
you are not	
He is not	They are not
I have not	
I do not	I turn not, or
I may not	I do not turn
I can not	I am not turning.
I was not	I would not
I had not	I should not
I did not	I might not
I could not	

I have not been	I was not turned
I had not been	I have not turned
I could not have been	I had not turned
I would not have been	I did not turn
I should not have been	I could not turn
I might not have been	I would not turn
	I should not turn
	I might not turn
	I may

\* The first person, Will I be ? will we be ? is not used, except by mistake. I have not set down all the persons in the interrogative form, deeming one or two sufficient. The learner may go through the several persons, at the direction of the instructor: As, am I ? art thou ? is he ? are we ? are ye or are you ? are they ? So in the other examples.

I may not have turned.  
 I can not have turned.  
 I might not have turned.  
 I would not have turned.  
 I could not have turned.  
 I should not have turned.

*In Future Time.*

I shall not be	I shall not turn
I will not be	I will not turn
I shall not have been	I shall not have turned
You will not have been	You will not have turned.

*How do the English ask questions in the negative?*

In this manner, place the nominative after the verb or first helper, and the *not* immediately after the nominative.

*Examples.*

Am I not ?	Will I not ?
Was I not ?	Shall I not ?
Have I not ?	Cou'd I not ?
Had I not ?	Would I not ?
Can I not ?	Should I not ?
May I not ?	
Have I not been turned ?	
Had I not been turned ?	
Could I not have been turned ?	
Would I not have been turned ?	
Should I not have been turned ?	
Might I not have been turned ?	
Must I not have been turned ?	

*When do the English ask questions in this negative form?*

When the speaker is supposed to be acquainted with the fact enquired for or to suspect it ; and to ask for a concession or assurance of the fact. It seems, in an argument, to be a modest way of asserting a fact. But when the enquirer is supposed to be unacquainted with the fact, he ought not to ask the question in the negative form. Thus :

*Does it rain?* asks for information.

*Does it not rain?* implies that the speaker supposes it to rain.

"*Do you believe the existence of a supreme Being?*" would be a very improper question to ask of a known christian.

"*Do you not believe the existence of a supreme Being?*" may be asked of any person with propriety ; especially in an argument.

*Where*

*Where is the negation to be placed?*

After the nominative case; thus:

Do I not write? Has he not written?

Does he not write? Should he not be writing?

In the vulgar style, the negation is placed before the nominative, and contracted thus: *Did'nt I write?* don't be write? can't be write? But this should not be imitated.

*Note.* The answer to a negative interrogative sentence, if the fact is conceded, is expressed by the affirmative *yes*, or a correspondent verb. If the speaker intends to deny the fact, he answers by the negative *no*; or a correspondent verb. It is said by some men of erudition, that the negative form of questioning is not philosophically necessary; but this is not material; as, in our language, it certainly has a distinction and important meaning.

In teaching the English verbs, especially to foreigners, the learner should be directed to draw out on paper, the forms of several verbs at large; not only in the affirmative form, but in the negative and interrogative, and in the combined form of both. This should be particularly attended to in the irregular verbs. Every learner should write out a number of irregulars at large, with a view to understand the proper combinations of the auxiliary signs, with the radical verb and its participles.

The defective verb *ought* is thus varied, in the present and past time.

I ought We ought

Thou oughtest Ye or you ought

He ought They ought

*Ought* has no participle.

*Let* is thus varied in the present time.

I let We let

Thou letteth Ye or you let

He letteth or lets They let.

It has no other variation; but it has all tenses and participles.

#### IRREGULAR VERBS.

All English verbs that make the past time and participle in *ed*, are accounted regular: All that vary from this rule may be called irregular. I shall rank the whole of

our irregular verbs under three heads; first those that make the present tense, past and participle all alike; as,

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Participle.</i>
-----------------	--------------	--------------------

Hurt.	Hurt.	Hurt.
-------	-------	-------

Of this kind are the following: beat, bust, cast, cost,  
cut, heat, hit, knit, let, put, read, rent, rid, set, shed,  
shred, shut, slit, spilt, spread, thrust, wet.

The addition of *ed* after *d* or *t*, would render the sound of the word disagreeable; as, *bisted*, *putted*, &c. for which reason it is omitted.

*Note.* Beat sometimes makes *beaten* in the participle; and *beat*, *beated*.

2. Those that make the past time and participle alike, but different from the present time; as the following:

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past and Part.</i>	<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past and Part.</i>
Awake	Awoks	lose	lost
abide	abode	make	made
be	been	mean	meant
behold	beheld	meet	met
bind	bound	pay	paid
bleed	bled	rend	rent
breed	bred	say	said
bring	brought	seek	sought
build	built or builded	sell	fold
buy	bought	send	sent
catch	caught	shoot	shot
creep	crept	sleep	lept
deal	dealt	sling	slung
dig	dug	smell	melt
dream	dreamt	spend	spent
dwell	dwelt	spin	spun
feed	fed	stand	stood
feel	felt	gild	gilt or gilded
fight	fought	gird	girt or girded
find	found	grind	ground
flee	fled	hang	hung or hanged
fling	flung	have	had
geld	gelt or gelded	hear	heard
bend	bent	keep	kept
unbend	unbent	lay	laid
bereave	bereft	lead	led
befeed	besought	steave	left
leap	leapt or leaped	stick	stuck
leash	leane	sing	hung

sweep

sweep	swept	weep	wept
sweat	swet	wind	wound
teach	taught	work	wrought or worked
tell	told	wring	wrong
think	thought	win	won

3. Those that have the present, past and participle all different; as the following:

*Pesent Tense.*

Bear	bore or bare	Participle.	borne or born
begin	began		begun
bid	bade or bid		bidden
bite	bit		bitten
blow	blew		blown
break	broke		broken
chide	chid		chiden
choose	chose		chosen
cleave	clove or cleave		cloven or cleft
come	came		come
crow	crew		crowed
dare	durst		dared
die	died		dead
do	did		done
draw	drew		drawn
drink	drank		drank
drive	drove		driven
eat	ate		eaten
fall	fell		fallen
fly	flew		flown
forlaike	forsook		forsaken
freeze	froze		frozen
get	got		gotten
give	gave		given
go	went		gone
grow	grew		grown
hew	hewed		hewn
hide	hid		hidden
hold	held		held or holden
know	knew		known
lade	laded		laden
load	loaded		loaded or loaden
ly or lie	lay		lain
mow	mowed		mown
ride	rode		ridden
ring	rang or rung		rung
rise	rose		risen
run	ran		run

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Participle.</i>
see	saw	seen
saw	sawed	sawn
teeth	fed	fodden
shave	shaved	shaven
shake	shook	shaken
shear	sheared	shorn
strew	strewed <i>also,</i>	strown
strow	strowed	strown
shew	shewed <i>also,</i>	shewn
show	showed	shown
shrink	shrank or shrunk	shrunk
sing	sang or sung	sung
sink	sink or sunk	sunk
sit	sat	sitten
slay	slew	slain
slide	slid	滑idden
smite	smote	smitten
sow	sowed	sown
speak	spoke	spoken
spring	sprang or sprung	sprung
steal	stole	stolen
stink	stank or stunk	stunk
strike	struck	struck
spit	spat	spitten
strive	strove	striven
swear	swore	sworn
swell	swelled	swollen or swelled
swing	swang or swung	swung
swim	swam or swum	swum
take	took	taken
tear	tore	torn
thrive	throng	thriven
throw	threw	thrown
tread	trod	trodden
wear	wore	worn
weave	wove	woven
write	wrote	written
wax	waxed	waxen

## N O T E S.

## PLURAL NUMBER.

Some men write *genius's*, *idea's*, for the plural. But this seems not so correct as *geniusses*, *ideas*.

It

It is disputed, whether two *handful*, or two *handfuls*, is the most correct expression. It appears to me as plain a case as, *two shoemakers* or *two shoes maker*. The word *handful* is a noun, a name of a certain quantity, and the sign of the plural ought to be added to the termination. *Two handful* does not convey the idea; it means two separate *hands* filled; whereas *two handfuls* means twice the quantity that a hand will contain, which is our meaning when we use the word.

We usually say, “*the miss Smiths*;” “*The misses Smiths*,” is more accurate.

We say, *twelve foot, thirty pound*; and this seems to be an established idiom of the language. It is remarked by *Lbuyd*, that this also is the invariable practice in the Cornish dialect, a branch of the old British language. So also we say, *a hundred horse, these are a good apple*. The word *folk* anciently signified a number, *these folk*. But it is now used in the plural, *folks*. *Enough* was once used in the singular only; *enowz* in the plural is still used by some writers, particularly the Scotch; but *enough* is now generally used in both numbers.

#### POSSESSIVE CASE.

Many people use *wives* in the plural, when they should use *wife's*, the possessive. “*It is at my wives disposal*,” ought to be, *wife's disposal*.

It is questioned whether *at Mr. Bell's the bookseller's*, or *at Mr. Bell's the bookseller*, or *at Mr. Bell the bookseller's*, is the most elegant expression. The first is clearly the most correct and agreeable; except two words follow; as, *at Mr. Bell's the bookseller's and stationer's*: in which case, I should vary the expression, *at the store of Mr. Bell, bookseller and stationer*.

We use *latter* and *later* in different senses. *Latter* refers to time and place; *later* to time only. *Priestley*.

*Older* and *oldest* are used in a sense different from *elder* and *eldest*. *Older* and *oldest* refer to priority of time only; *elder* and *eldest* are used to express precedence of rank or privilege.

We often use the superlative for the comparative, *the strongest of the two*. This is not so correct as *stronger*.

*Plenty* for *plentiful* is become so frequent as perhaps to claim a place among English adjectives. *Wheat is plenty*.

## PRONOUNS.

Pronouns are sometimes used without any antecedent; but in such cases, the antecedent is easily suggested by the mind. “How far is it to such a place?” “How far do you call it?” That is, the distance. Who is it? Who is the person?

Sometimes it seems to coalesce with the verb in sense. “The king carried it with a high hand.” *Parliam. hist.*

We vulgarly say, *Will you smoke it?*

*What* is vulgarly used for that. “I am not satisfied but *what* it was best.”

It is very common to hear these phrases, *it is me*, *it was him*. These appear not strictly grammatical, but have such a prevalence in English, and in other modern languages derived from the same source, it inclines me to think, that there may be reasons for them, which are not now understood. The French say, *c'est moi*, *c'est lui*, phrases precisely answering to ours, *it is me*, *it is him*. In some instances, these cannot well be avoided. See *Priestley* on pronouns.

The relative *who*, in this and similar phrases, *who do you speak to?* must perhaps be admitted as an anomaly. It is the invariable practice to use *who*, except among people who are fettered by grammatical rules. In spite of rules, *who is she married to?* is more agreeable than, *whom is she married to?*

## VERB.

We say, *what ails him?* but seldom, *be ails a fever* or other disease.

Owing and wanting are used in a passive sense. *What is owing?* *A debt owing to me*, are established phrases.

We say, *a man is well read in law*; *he was offered so much for a thing*, where the subject and object seem to have changed places; for the meaning is, *law is well read*; *so much was offered*, &c. This inversion may be allowable, where it is not attended with obscurity.

On the use of auxiliary verbs, Dr. *Priestley* has this criticism, “By studying conciseness, we are apt to drop the auxiliary, *to have*, though the sense relate to past time. I found him better than I expected to find him. In this case analogy seems to require that we may, *I expected to have found him*: that is, *to have found him there*.” This is a great

great error, and for the reason which he immediately assigns, that is, “*the time past is sufficiently indicated by the former part of the sentence.*” The truth is, the time is ascertained by the first verb, *I expected*, and carries the mind back to the time; then to use another verb in time past, is to carry the mind back to a time preceding the existence of my expectations. He gives an example from *Hume*, which, he says, is certainly faulty. — “*These prosecutions of William, seem to be the most iniquitous,*” &c. It is faulty, not because both verbs are not in time past, but because neither of them is past time; *seem to have been*, or *seemed to be*, would have been correct; but *seemed to have been*, would not have been grammatical. His remarks on this point seem to have been made with less accuracy of judgment than we observe in most of his writings.

Sometimes verbs after *than* have no apparent nominative, “*He speaks with more spirit than is usual.*” This is an elliptical form of expression, and the verb might be omitted: but it is often used without creating ambiguity.

These expressions, *I had rather*, *you had better*, *I had as leif*, seem not grammatical. Whether *had* is, in these phrases, a corruption of *would*, or an old peculiarity, its general use, both in books and speech, undoubtedly entitle it to an establishment in grammar. *Rather* is the comparative of the old word *rathe*, *prompt*, *willing*. This, as well as *better* and *leif*, were originally nouns, and might, with propriety, follow *have*, *had*, *rather*, i. e. *had more promptness or readiness*. It is probable, that if we could go far enough into antiquity, we should find these phrases might be resolved on grammatical principles. Besides, *would* will not always supply the place of *had*. *You would better stay*, is not the sense of *you had better stay*.

There is something singular in the use of the verbs *need* and *dare*, in the third person. When they stand as transitive verbs, and are followed by some noun or pronoun, they have the regular personal termination; as, *he needs guide*; *he dares me to enter the list*. But when they are immediately followed by another verb in the infinitive, the personal termination is dropped, and these verbs are to be considered as auxiliaries: Thus, *he need not go*: *he are not stay*; where *need* and *dare* stand exactly upon the footing of *may* and *can*. This difference in the use of these

words has not before been observed, yet is as well estab-  
lished as any peculiarity in the language, and insensibly  
made in practice from the best writers to the humblest  
cottagers. *He dares not go ; he needs not go,* are as awk-  
ward and unwarrantable as *he may not*, or *can not go*.

The verb *needs* is often used in another manner, equally  
singular ; as in this sentence : “ In such artificial things,  
there *needs* no other description, than to name them by  
their usual names.” Bacon’s *Abridg.* vol. 4. 24. This is  
good English, but what is the nominative to *needs*? Per-  
haps this phrase might grow out of *need is* ; as *needs* in  
the phrase, *he must needs*, is evidently a contraction of *need*  
*is*. At any rate, it is a well established mode of expression,  
*there needs one*, *there needs none*, &c. and it must be ad-  
mitted as an idiomatic irregularity.

Another singularity in the use of this verb is observable.  
When it is used as a transitive or principal verb, it has a  
regular preterit ; as, *he had all the evidence he needed*. But  
when it stands on the footing of an auxiliary, it has not  
the usual inflections for the past time ; as, “ Perhaps the  
party had other evidence, and *need not have put the cause*  
*on this point*.” *Salkeld’s Reports*, 1. 289. These distinc-  
tions are established in books as well as practice.

When *need* is used as a principal verb, the sign of the  
infinitive is prefixed to a following verb ; as, *he needed to*  
*have some support*. So that as a principal verb, it is regu-  
lar in its variations ; but as an auxiliary, it has no vari-  
ation, unless with *thou* in the second person.

The use of *mistaken* is equally singular. When applied  
to persons it is synonymous with *wrong* or *erroneous*. This  
is almost or quite universally understood to be its mean-  
ing ; and this common understanding constitutes its true  
signification, which no man has a right to dispute or at-  
tempt to change. But when applied to *things*, it is always  
used in a passive sense, equivalent to *misunderstood*. *I am*  
*mistaken*, *you are mistaken*, *mean*, *I am wrong*, *you are wrong*,  
but, *the nature of a thing is mistaken*, *means*, *its nature is*  
*misunderstood*.

#### PREPOSITIONS, ADVERBS AND CONJUNCTIONS.

*While* is commonly considered as an adverb ; but very  
erroneously. It is a noun, signifying *time*. *It is worth*  
*while*, or *worth his while* ; i. e. *worth his time*. *How* is  
sometimes

sometimes used as implying negation. “*Let us take care how we sin,*” i. e. that we do not sin. But this is not very correct, and a very unnecessary mode of speaking. *Above* is often used as an adjective—*the above remarks.* *Then* is sometimes used in the same manner, *the then ministry.* These phrases seem uncouth, but perhaps were formerly considered as correct.

*A* is often used as equivalent to *per* in Latin. *Four shillings a bushel.* Philosophical principles teach us to supply *for* to make the sentence complete; but it does not appear that *for* was ever used in these cases. It is probable from the progress of language, and from old English writers, that it is a contraction of *one, four shillings one bushel.* Some grammarians, ignorant of the idioms of their own tongue, and fond of adjusting every thing by Roman rules, have substituted the Latin *per*. Thus we see every day, *per week, per quarter, per yard, per bushel*, and a multitude of other *pers*, the offspring of ignorance and pedantry, foisted into the language, and disinheriting our own legitimate children. The English *a week, a yard, a day, &c. and a day*, is as correct in English, as *per diem* is in Latin.

Lowth condemns this expression, “*In one hour is so great riches come to nought.*” But this word was formerly in the singular number. Chaucer uses *richeſſe* almost invariably in the singular, and makes the plural *richeſſes*.

*Many* was formerly used in the singular number—

“*Against so manye foo,*”—that is, *fee*.

Hence the propriety of the phrase, *many a man*.

Lowth also reprobates this form of expression, *it is these, it is they*. I believe these phrases may be defended on philosophical principles; *these* and *they* collectively forming an agent or subject, represented by *it*. At any rate the idiom is so well established, and the other construction is so awkward, that an English ear cannot consent to the correction—*they are they*. No Frenchman disputes the propriety of *ce sont eux, ce sont elles*—phrases which are as unphilosophical as ours, *it is these or they*. And in spite of great names, these phrases will always be used as good English.

Our ancestors considered *ales* as singular. “*The ales of an heifer—sanctifieth to the purifying of the flesh.*” *Sanctifieth* is not a mistake—the translators of the Bible did not

not make such blunders. But in modern times, *asbes* is rather used as a plural.

*Averse* and *aversion*, Lowth says, seem to require *from* and not admit *to*. He inclines much to admit Latin idioms rather than English. The true force and propriety of the English particles are known only by their use. *To* is generally used after these words—it is much the most agreeable, and on examining the original meaning of *to*, it is found to be the most correct. A Latinist may relish *averse from*, but an English ear is not easily reconciled to the expression.

*Compare* is followed by *with* or *to*. *With* is used, when two objects are compared which are together, and exhibited at a single view. *To* is sometimes used, when objects are absent from each other. Or perhaps this is the difference; *with* is used when two things are of the same kind, and alike in the capital figure or properties; *to*, when a comparison is instituted *de novo*, or between things that are not commonly associated in idea. Of the former this will serve as an example: “He compared one picture *with* another.” Of the latter, “Homer compares a crowd of people *to* a swarm of bees.”

The adjectives *long*, *broad*, *thick*, *deep*, *high*, *old*, *distant*, may follow the nouns which they qualify, as, *five feet long*, *two feet broad*, *four feet thick*, *one yard deep*, *twenty feet high*, *seven years old*, *three miles distant*.

### CRITICAL NOTES, by DR. LOWTH.

(1) “AND I persecuted this way unto *the* death.” Act. xxii. 4. The apostle does not mean any particular sort of death, but death in general: the definite article therefore is improperly used. It ought to be *unto death*, without any article: agreeable to the original. See also 2 Chron. xxxii. 24.

“When He, the Spirit of truth is come, he will guide you into *all truth*.” John xvi. 13. That is, according to this translation, into all truth whatsoever, into truth of all kinds; very different from the meaning of the Evangelist, and from the original, into *all truth*; that is, into all evangelical truth.

“Truly

"Truly this was *the Son of God*," Matt. xxvii. 54. and Mark xv. 39. This translation supposes that the Roman Centurion had a proper and adequate notion of the character of Jesus, as the Son of God in a peculiar and incommunicable sense: whereas it is probable, both from the circumstances of history, and from the expression of the original, (*a Son of God, or of a God, not the Son*) that he only meant to acknowledge him to be an extraordinary person, and more than a mere man; according to his own notion of Sons of Gods in the Pagan theology. This is also more agreeable to St. Luke's account of the same confession of the Centurion. "Certainly this was a righteous man;" not the Just One. The same may be observed of Nebuchadnezzar's words, Dan. iii. 25. "and the form of the fourth is like *the son of God*; it ought to be expressed by the indefinite article, like *a son of God*, as Theodotion very properly renders it; that is, like an angel; according to Nebuchadnezzar's own account of it in the 28th verse: "Blessed be God, who hath sent his angel, and delivered his servants." See also Luke xix. 9.

"Who breaks a butterfly upon *a wheel?*" Pope.

It ought to be, *the wheel*; used as an instrument for the particular purpose of torturing criminals; as Shakespeare,

"Let them pull all about mine ears; present me  
Death on *the wheel*, or at wild horses' heels."

"God Almighty hath given reason to *a man* to be a  
ghet unto him." Hobbes, Elements of Law, Part I.  
chap. v. 12. It should rather be, "*to man, in general.*"

(z) The word *many* is taken collectively as a substantive.

"O thou fond *many*! with what loud applause  
Did'st thou beat heav'n with blessing Bolingbroke,  
Before he was what thou wouldest have him be?"

Shakespear, 2 Hen. IV.

But it will be hard to reconcile to any grammatical propriety the following phrase: *Many one there be*, that say my soul, There is no help for him in his God." Ps. iii. 2.

"How *many a message* would he send?"

Swift, verses on his own death.

"He would send *many a message*," is right: but the question *how* seems to destroy the unity, or collective na-

ture of the idea; and therefore it ought to have been expressed, if the measure would have allowed of it, without the article, in the plural number; “*how many messages.*”

(3) “*There were slain of them upon a three thousand men;*” that is, to the number of three thousand. 1 Mac. iv. 15. “*About an eight days;*” that is, a space of eight days. Luke ix. 28. But the expression is obsolete, or at least vulgar; and we may add likewise, improper; for neither of these numbers has been reduced by use and convenience into one collective and compact idea, like *a hundred* and *a thousand*; each of which, like *a dozen* or *a score*, we are accustomed equally to consider on certain occasions as a simple unity.

(4) “*Christ his sake,*” in our liturgy, is a mistake, either of the printers or of the compilers. “*Nevertheless, Asa his heart was perfect with the Lord.*” 1 Kings, xv. 14. “*To see whether Mordecai his matters would stand.*” Esther, iii. 4.

(5) “It is very probable, that this convocation was called, to clear some doubt, that King James might have had about the lawfulness of the Hollanders *their throwing off the monarchy of Spain, and their withdrawing for good and all their allegiance to that crown.*” Wellwood’s Memoirs, p. 31, 6th edition. In this sentence, the pronominal adjective *their* is twice improperly added, the possessive case being sufficiently expressed without it.

(6) Some writers have used *ye* as the objective case plural of the pronoun of the second person, very improperly, and ungrammatically.

“*The more shame for ye: holy men I thought ye.*”  
Shakespear, Hen. VIII.

“*But tyrants dread ye, lest your just decree,  
Transfer the pow’r, and set the people free.*” Prior.  
“*His wrath, which one day will destroy ye both.*”

Milton, P. L. ii. 734.

Milton uses the same manner of expression in a few other places of his Paradise Lost, and more frequently in his Poems. It may perhaps be allowed in the Comic and Burlesque style, which often imitates a vulgar and incorrect pronunciation; as, “*By the Lord, I knew ye, as well as he that made ye.*” Shakespear, 1 Henry IV. But in the serious and solemn style, no authority is sufficient to justify so manifest a solecism.

The

The singular and plural form seem to be confounded in the following sentence : “ Pass ye away, thou inhabitants of Sophir.” Micah 1. 11.

(7) *His self* and *their selves* were formerly in use, even in the objective case after a preposition : “ Every of us, each for *his self*, labored how to recover him.” Sidney. “ That they would willingly, and of *their selves*, endeavor to keep a perpetual chastity.” Stat. 2 and 3 Ed. VI. ch. 21.

(8) Double comparatives and superlatives are improper : — “ — The Duke of Milan,

And his more brave daughter could control thee.”

Shakespear, *Tempest.*

“ After the most straitest sect of our religion I lived a Pharisee.” Acts xxvi. 5. So likewise adjectives, that have in themselves a superlative signification, admit not properly the superlative form superadded : “ Whosoever of you will be chiefest, shall be servant of all.” Mark x. 44. “ One of the first and chiefest instances of prudence,” Aiterbury, Serm. IV. “ While the extremest parts of earth were meditating a submission.” Ibid. I. 4.

“ But first and chiefest with thee bring  
Him that yon soars on golden wing,  
Guiding the fiery-wheeled throne,

The Cherub contemplation.” Milton, II. *Penserofo.*

“ That on the sea’s extremest border stood.”

Addison’s *Travels.*

(9) *Worser* is barbarous.

“ Changed to a *worser* shape thou canst not be.”

Shakespear, I Hen. VI.

“ A dreadful quiet felt, and *worser* far

Than arms, a sullen interval of war.”

Dryden.

(10) *Thou* in the polite, and even in the familiar style, is disputed, and the plural *you* is employed instead of it ; “ we say, *you have*, not *thou hast*. On the contrary the solemn style admits *not* of *you* for a single person. This hath led Mr. Pope into a great impropriety in the beginning of his *Messiah* :

— “ O *thou* my voice inspire,

Who touch’d Isaiah’s hallow’d lips with fire !”

The solemnity of the style would not admit of *you* for *thou* in the pronoun ; nor the measure of the verse touched or didst

*didst touch, in the verb, as it indispensably ought to be, in the one, or the other of these two forms ; you who touched, or thou who touchedst, or didst touch.*

(11) *Hath* properly belongs to the serious and solemn style ; *has* to the familiar. The same may be observed of *doth* and *does*.

" But, confounded with thy art,  
Inquires her name, that *has* her heart." Waller.

" The unwearied sun from day to day  
Does his Creator's power display." Addison.

The nature of the style, as well as the harmony of the verse, seems to require in these places *bath* and *doth*.

(12) The auxiliary verb *will* is always formed in the second and third persons singular *wilt* and *will* ; but the verb *to will*, not being an auxiliary, is formed regularly ; *I will*, *thou willest*, *he willett* or *wills*. " Thou that art the author and bestower of life, canst doubtless restore it if thou *will'st*, and when thou *will'st* ; but whether thou *will'st* (*wilt*) please to restore it, or not, that thou alone knowest." Atterbury, Serm. I. 7.

(13) I doubt much of the propriety of the following examples : " The rules of our holy religion, from which we are infinitely *swerved*." Tillotson. vol. i. Serm. 27.

" The whole obligation of that law and covenant, which God made with the Jews, *was also ceased*." Ibid. vol. ii. Serm. 52.

" Whose number *was now amounted* to three hundred." Swift's contests and dissentions, chap. iii.

" This mareschal upon some discontent, *was entered* into a conspiracy against his master." Addison, Freeholder, No. 31.

Neuter verbs are sometimes employed very improperly as actives : " Go, flee thee away into the land of Judah." Amos vii. 12.

" I think it by no means a fit and decent thing to *vie charities*, and erect the reputation of one upon the ruins of another." Atterbury, Serm. I. 2.

" So many learned men, that have spent their whole time and pains to *agree* the sacred with the profane chronology." Sir William Temple, Works, Fol. vol. p. 296.

" How would the gods my righteous toils succeed ?" Pope, Odyss. xiv. 447.

— " If Jove this arm succeed." Ibid. xxi. 219.

And

And active verbs are as improperly made neuter : as, “ I must premise with three circumstances.” Swift, Q. Anne’s Last Ministry, chap. 2. “ Those that think to ingratiate with him by calumniating me.” Bentley, Dissert. on Phalaris, p. 159.

(14) *Rise*, with *i* short, hath been improperly used as the past time of this verb, “ That form of the first or primogenial earth, which *rise* immediately out of chaos, was not the same, nor like to that of the present earth.” Burnet’s Theory of the Earth, B. I. chap. 4. “ If we hold fast to that scripture conclusion, that all mankind *rise* from one head.” Ibid. B. II. chap. 7.

(15) Frequent mistakes are made in the formation of the participle of the verb *sit*. The analogy plainly requires *sitten*; which was formerly in use : “ The army having *sitten* there so long.” — “ Which was enough to make him stir, that would not have *sitten* still, though Hannibal had been quiet.” Raleigh. “ That no parliament should be dissolved, till it had *sitten* five months.” Hobbes, Hist. of Civil Wars. p. 257. But it is now almost wholly disused, the form of the past time *sat*, having taking its place. “ The court *was sat*, before Sir Roger came.” Addison, Spect. No. 122. Dr. Middleton hath, with great propriety, restored the true participle : “ To have *sitten* on the heads of the apostles : to have *sitten* upon each of them.” Works. vol. ii. p. 30.

(16) The neuter verb *lie* is frequently confounded with the verb active *to lay*, (that is, *to put* or *place*;) which is regular, and has in the past time and participle *layed* or *laid*.

“ For him, through hostile camps I bent my way,  
For him, thus prostrate at thy feet I *lay* ;  
Large gifts proportioned to thy wrath I bear.”

Pope, Iliad xxiv. 622.

Here *Lay* is evidently used for the present time, instead of *lie*.

(17) *Overflown* used for *overflowed*.

“ For rhyme in Greece or Rome was never known,  
Till by barbarian deluges o’*erflown*.” Roscom. Essay.

“ Do not the Nile and the Niger make yearly inundations in our days, as they have formerly done ? And are not the countries so *overflown* still situate between the tropicks ?” Bentley’s Sermons.

“ Thus

" Thus oft by mariners are shown  
 Earl Goodwin's castles overflow'n." Swift.  
 Here the participle of the irregular verb, *to fly*, is con-  
 founded with that of the regular verb *to flow*. It ought  
 to be in all these places *overflowed*.

(18) *Improper use of the past time for the participle.*

" He would have spoke." Milton, P. L. x. 517.

" Words interwove with sighs found out their way."

P. L. i. 621.

" Those kings and potentates who have strove."

Eiconoclast. xvii.

" And to his faithful servant bath in place

" Bore witness gloriously." Samson Ag. ver. 1752.

Add envions darkness, ere they could return,

*Had stoln them from me.* Comus, ver. 195.

Here it is observable, that the author's MS. and the  
 first edition, have it *stolen*.

" And in triumph had rode." P. R. iii. 36.

— " I have chose

This perfect man. P. R. i. 165.

" The fragrant briar was wove between."

Dryden, Fables.

" I will scarce think you have swam in a Gondola."

Shakespear, As you like it.

" Then finish what you have began,

But scribble faster, if you can."

Dryden, Poems, Vol. II. p. 172.

" And now the years a numerous train have ran;

The blooming boy has ripened into man."

Pope's Odyss. xi. 555.

" Have sprang." Aiterbury, Serm. I. 4.

" Had spake—had began." Clarendon, Contin. Hist.  
 p. 40 and 120.

" The men begun to embellish themselves."

Addison, Spect. No. 434.

" Rapt into future times the bard begun." Pope, Messiah.

And without the necessity of rhyme :

" A second deluge learning thus o'er-run,

And the Monks finish'd what the Goths begun."

Essay on Criticism.

(19) The

(19) The formation of adverbs in general with the comparative and superlative terminations seem to be improper ; at least it is now become almost obsolete : as, “ Touching things which generally are received—we are *hardliest* able to bring such proof of their certainty, as may satisfy gainsayers.” Hooker, B. V. 2. “ Was the *easier* persuaded.” Raleigh. “ That he may the *stronglier* provide.” Hobbes, Life of Thucyd. “ The things *highly* important to the growing age.” Shaftesbury, Letter to Molesworth. “ The question would not be, who loved himself, and who not ; but who loved and served himself the *rightest*, and after the *truest* manner.” Id. Wit and Humour. It ought rather to be, *most hardly*, *more easily*, *more strongly*, *most highly*, *most right* or *most rightly*. But these comparative adverbs, however improper in prose, are sometimes allowable in poetry.

“ Scepter and pow’r thy giving, I assume ;  
And gladlier shall resign.” Milton, P. L. vi. 731.

(20) The conjunction *because*, used to express the motive or end, is obsolete ; as, “ The multitude rebuked them, *because* they should hold their peace.” Matt. xx. 31. “ It is the case of some, to contrive false periods of business, *because* they may seem men of dispatch.” Bacon, Essay xxv. We should now make use of *that*.

(21) “ Scotland and thee did each in over live.”  
Dryden, Poems, vol. II. p. 220.

“ We are alone ; here’s none but *thee* and I ”  
Shakespear, 2 Hen. VI.

It ought, in both places, to be *thou* ; the nominative case to the verb expressed or understood.

(22) “ But *thou* false Arcite, never *shall* obtain  
Thy bad pretence.” Dryden, Fables.

It ought to be *shalt*. The mistake seems to arise from the confounding of *thou* and *you*.

“ Nor *thou* that flings me floundering from thy back.”  
Parnel, Battle of Frogs and Mice, I, 123.

“ There’s (there are) two or *three* of us have seen  
strange sights.” Shakespear, Jul. Cæs.

“ I have considered, what have (hath) been said on both  
sides in this controversy.” Tillotson, Vol. I. Serm. 27.  
“ One

"One would think, there was more Sophists than one had a finger in this volume of letters. Bently, Dissert. on Socrates' Epistles, sect. IX.

"The number of the names together were about an hundred and twenty. Acts i. 25. See also Job xiv. 5.

"And Rebekah took goodly raiment of her eldest son Esau, which were with her in the house, and put them upon Jacob her youngest son." Gen. xxvii. 15.

(23) "To see so many *to make* so little conscience of so great a sin." Tillotson, Serm. I. 22. "It cannot but be a delightful spectacle to God and angels, to see a young person besieged by powerful temptations on either side, *to acquit* himself gloriously, and resolutely *to hold out* against the most violent assaults: to behold one in the prime and flower of his age, that is courted by pleasures and honours, by the devil, and all the bewitching vanities of the world, *to reject* all these, and *to cleave* steadfastly unto God." Ib. Serm. 54. The impropriety of the phrases distinguished by italic characters is evident. See Matth. xv. 31.

(24) Matth. xxiii. 5. The following sentences seem defective either in the construction or the order of the words: "Wy do ye that, *which* is not lawful to do on the sabbath days? — The shew-bread, *which* is not lawful to eat, but for the priests alone." Luke vi. 2—4. The construction may be rectified, by supplying *it*; "which *it* is not lawful to do; which *it* is not lawful to eat:" or the order of the words in this manner; "*to do* *which*, *to eat* *which*, is not lawful; where the infinitive *to do*, *to eat*, does the office of the nominative case, and the relative *which* is in the objective case.

(25) "Here you may see, that visions are *to dread*."

Dryden, Fables.

"I am not like other men, *to envy* the talents I cannot reach." Tale of a Tub, Preface. "Grammarians have denied, or at least doubted, *them* *to be* genuine." Congreve's Preface to Homer's Hymn to Venus. "That all our doings may be ordered by thy governance, *to do* always that is righteous in thy sight." Liturgy. The infinitive in these places seems to be improperly used.

(26) "The burning lever *not deludes* his pains."

Dryden, Ovid. Metam. B. xii.

"I hope, my Lord, said he, I *not offend*." Dryden, Fab.

These

These examples make the impropriety of placing the adverb *not* before the verb very evident. Shakespear frequently places the negative before the verb :

"She *not* denies it." — Much ado.

— "For men

Can counsel, and give comfort to that grief,  
Which they themselves *not* feel." — Ibid.

It seems therefore as if this order of words had anciently been much in use, though now grown altogether obsolete.

(27) *Did he not fear the Lord, and besought the Lord, and the Lord repented him of the evil which he had pronounced against them?* Jer. xxvi. 19. Here the interrogative and explicative forms are confounded. It ought to be, "Did he not fear the Lord, and *beseech* the Lord ? and did not the Lord *repent* him of the evil ?" "If a man have an hundred sheep, and one of them be gone astray, doth he not leave the ninety and nine, and goeth into the mountains, and seeketh that which is gone astray ? Mat. xviii. 12. It ought to be *go and seek*; that is, doth he not *go and seek* that which is gone astray ?

(28) "Let *each* esteem other better than *themselves*." Phil. ii. 3. It ought to be *himself*. "It is requisite that the language of an heroic poem should be both perspicuous and sublime. In proportion as either of these two qualities are [is] wanting, the language is imperfect." Addison. Spect. No. 285. "'Tis observable, that every one of the letters bear date after his banishment ; and contain a complete narrative of all his story afterwards." Bentley, Dissert. on Themistocles's epistles, Sect. ii. It ought to be *bears*, and *they contain*.

*Either* is often used improperly instead of *each*: as, "The king of Israel, and Jehosaphat king of Judah sat *either* [each] of them on his throne." 2 Chron. xviii. 9. "Nadab and Abihu, the sons of Aaron, took *either* [each] of them his censer." Lev. x. 1. See also 1 Kings, vii. 15. *Each* signifies *both* of them taken distinctly, or separately : *either* properly signifies *only the one, or the other*, of them, taken disjunctively. For which reason the like expression in the following passages seems also improper : "They crucified two other with him, on *either* side one, and Jesus in the midst." John xix. 18. "Of *either* side of the river was there the tree of life." Rev. xxii. 2. See also 1 Kings, x. 19. "Proposals for a truce be-

tween the ladies of either party." Addison, Freeholder, Contents of No. 38.

(29) "Forasmuch as it hath pleased Almighty God of his goodness to give you safe deliverance, and hath preserved you in the great danger of childbirth :" Litory. The verb *hath preserved*, hath here no nominative case ; for it cannot be properly supplied by the preceding word, *God*, which is in the objective case. It ought to be, "and *he* hath preserved you ;" or rather, "and *to preserve* you." Some of our best writers have frequently fallen into this, which appears to me to be no small inaccuracy.

(30) "Which rule, if it had been observed, a neighbouring prince would have wanted a great deal of that incense which hath been offered up to him by the adorers." Atterbury, Serm. I. 1. The pronoun *it* is here the nominative case to the verb *observed* ; and *which rule* is left by itself, a nominative case without any verb following it. This manner of expression, however improper, is very common. It ought to be, "If *this rule* had been observed, &c." "We have no better materials to compound the priesthood of, than the mass of mankind ; which, corrupted as it is, those who receive orders must have some vices to leave behind them, when they enter into the church." Swift, Sentiments of a church of Englandman.

(31) This is commonly said, "I *only* spake three words :" when the intention of the speaker manifestly requires, "I spake *only* three words."

"Her body shaded with a slight cymarr,  
Her bosom to the view was *only* bare."

Dryden, Cymon and Iphig.

The sense necessarily requires this order :

"Her bosom *only* to the view was bare."

(32) Examples of impropriety in the use of the preposition. "Your character, which I, or any other writer, may now value ourselves *by*, (upon) drawing." Swift, Letter on the English tongue. "You have bestowed your favors *to* (upon) the most deserving persons." Ibid. "Upon such occasion as fell *into* (under) their cognizance." Swift, Contests and Dissentions, &c. chap. ii. "That variety of factions *into* (in) which we are

are still engaged." Ibid., chap. v. "To restore myself into (to) the good graces of my fair critics." Dryden's Preface to *Aureng.* " Accused the ministers for (of) betraying the Dutch." Swift, Four last years of the Queen, Book ii. " Ovid, whom you accuse for (of) luxuriancy of verse." Dryden, on Dram. Poesy. " The people of England may congratulate to themselves, that" —Dryden. " Something like this, has been reproached to Tacitus." Bolingbroke on History, vol I. p. 136. " He was made much on (of) at Argos." " He is so resolved of (on) going to the Persian court." Bent'ey, Dissertations on Themistocles's Epistles, Section iii. " Neither the one nor the other shall make me swerve out of (from) the path, which I have traced to myself." Bolingbroke, Letter to Wyndham, p. 252.

" And virgins smil'd at what they blush'd before :" What they blush'd (at.) Pope, Essay on Crit.

" They are now reconciled by a zeal for their cause, to what they could not be prompted (to) by a concern for their beauty," Addison, Spect. No. 81 : " if policy can prevail upon (over) force." Addison, Travels, p. 62. " I do likewise dissent with (from) the Examiner," Addison, Whig Exam. No. 1. " Ye blind guides, which strain at a gnat, and swallow a camel." Matt. xxiii. 24. " Which strain out, or take a goat out of the liquor by straining it ;" the impropriety of the preposition has wholly destroyed the meaning of the phrase. Observe also, that the noun generally requires after it, the same preposition, as the verb from which it is formed : It was perfectly in compliance to (with) some persons, for whose opinion I have great deference." Swift, Pref. to Temple's Memoirs. " Not from any personal hatred to them, but in justification to (of) the best of Queens." Swift, Examiner, No. 23. In the last example, the verb being transitive, and requiring the objective case, the noun formed from it, seems to require the possessive case, or its preposition after it. Or perhaps he means to say, " injustice to the best of Queens."

(33) May not *me, the, him, her, us,* which in Saxon are the dative cases of their respective pronouns, be considered as still continuing such in the English, and including, in their very form, the force of the prepositions

*to and for?* There are certainly some other phrases, which are to be resolved in this manner: “*Wo is me!*” The phrase is pure Saxon: “*Wa is me:*” *me* is the dative case, in English, with the preposition, *to me*. So, “*methinks;*” Saxon, “*me thineh.*” “*As us thoughte:*” Sir John Maundeville. “*Wo worth the day!*” Ezek. xxx. 2; that is, *Wo be to the day.* The word *worth* is not the adjective, but the Saxon verb *worthean*, or *worthean, fieri, to be, to become;* which is often used by Chaucer, and is still retained as an auxiliary verb in the German language.

(34) *That* hath been used in the same manner as including the relative *which*; but it is obsolete; as, “*To consider advisedly of that is moved.*” Bacon, *Essay xxii.* “*We speak that we do know, and testify that we have seen.*” John iii. 13.

(35) “*Who,* instead of going about doing good, *they* are perpetually intent upon doing mischief.” Tillotson, *Serm. I. 18.* The nominative case *they*, in this sentence, is superfluous: It was expressed before in the relative *who*.

(36) “*I am the Lord that maketh all things; that stretcheth forth the heavens alone:*” Isaiah xliv. 24. ‘Thus far is right: *the Lord* in the third person is the antecedent, and the verb agrees with the relative in the third person:’ “*I am the Lord, which Lord, or He that, maketh all things.*” It would have been equally right, if *I* had been made the antecedent, and the relative and the verb had agreed with it in the first person: “*I am the Lord, that make all things.*” But when it follows, “*that spreadeth abroad the earth by myself,*” there arises a confusion of persons, and manifest solecism.

“*Thou great first cause, least understood!*

*Who all my sense confin'd,*

*To know but this, that Thou art good,*

*And that myself am blind:*

*Yet gave me in this dark estate, &c.*

Pope, *Uni. Prayer.*

It ought to be *confinedst*, or *didst confine*: *gavest* or *didst give*, &c. in the second person.

(37) “*Abuse on all he lov'd, or lov'd him, spread.*”

Pope, *Epist. to Arbuthnot.*

That is, “*all whom he lov'd, or who lov'd him.*” Or,

to make it more easy by supplying a relative, that has no variation of cases, "all *that* he lov'd, or *that* lov'd him." "In the temper of mind he was then." Addison, Spect. No. 549. In these and the like phrases, which are very common, there is an ellipsis both of the relative and the preposition; which would have been much better supplied: "In the temper of mind *in which* he was then."

(38) The connective parts of sentences are the most important of all, and require the greatest care and attention; for it is by these chiefly, that the train of thought, the course of reasoning, and the whole progress of the mind, in continued discourse of all kinds, is laid open; and on the right use of these, the perspicuity, that is, the first and greatest beauty of style, principally depends. Relatives and conjunctions, are the instruments of connection in discourse: It may be of use to point out some of the most common inaccuracies, that writers are apt to fall into with respect to them, and a few examples of faults, may perhaps be more instructive, than any rules of propriety that can be given. Here therefore shall be added some further examples of inaccuracies in the use of relatives.

The relative placed before the antecedent; Example: "The bodies, which we daily handle, make us perceive, that whilst they remain between *them*, they do by an unsurmountable force, hinder the approach of our *hands* that press them." Locke, Essay, B. ii. C. 4. Sect. 1. Here the sense is suspended, and the sentence is unintelligible, till you get to the end of it: There is no antecedent to which the relative *them* can be referred, but *bodies*; but, "whilst the bodies remain between the bodies," make no sense at all. When you get to *hands*, the difficulty is cleared up, the sense helping out the construction. Yet there still remains an ambiguity in the relatives, *they*, *them*, which in number and person, are equally applicable to *bodies* or *hands*; this, though it may not here be the occasion of much obscurity, which is commonly the effect of it, yet it is always disagreeable and inelegant; as in the following examples:

"Men look with an evil eye, upon the good that is in others; and think, that *their* reputation obscures *them*; and that *their* commendable qualities do stand in *their* light, and therefore *they* do what *they* can to cast a cloud over

over them, that the bright shinings of their virtues, may not obscure them." Tillotson, Serm. I. 42.

"The Earl of Falmouth and Mr. Coventry, were rivals who should have most influence with the Duke, who loved the Earl best, but thought the other the wiser man, who supported Pen, who disengaged all the courtiers, even against the Earl, who contemned Pen, as a fellow of no sense." Clarendon, Cont. p. 264.

(39) The distributive conjunction *either*, is sometimes improperly used alone, instead of the simple disjunctive *or*: "Can the fig-tree bear olive berries? *either* a vine, figs?" James iii. 12. "Why beholdest thou the mote that is in thy brother's eye? *Either* how canst thou say to thy brother, Brother let me pull out the mote that is in thine eye; when thou thyself beholdest not the beam, that is in thine own eye?" Luke vii. 41. 42. See also chap. xv. 8. and Phil. iii. 12.

*Neither* is sometimes supposed to be included in its correspondent *nor*.

"Simois, nor Xanthus shall be wanting there." Dryden.

*Or* is sometimes used instead of *nor*, after *neither*: "This is another use, that, in my opinion, contributes rather to make a man learned than wise, and is *neither* capable of pleasing the understanding, *or* imagination." Addison, Dial. I. on Medals.

*Neither* for *nor*: "Neither in this world, neither in the world to come." Mat. xii. 32.

*Too—, that*, improperly used as correspondent conjunctions: "Whose characters are *too* profligate, *that* the managing of them should be of any consequence." Swift, Examiner, No. 24. And, *too—, than*: "You that are a step higher than a philosopher, a divine; yet have *too* much grace and wit *than* to be a bishop." Pope to Swift, Letter 80. *So—but*: "If the appointing and apportioning of penalties to crimes be not *so* properly a consideration of justice, *but rather* (as) of prudence in the lawgiver." Tillotson, Serm. I. 35.

#### CRITICAL NOTES, by DR. PRIESTLEY.

(1) IN several adjectives the termination *most* is used to express the superlative degree; as, *hindmost* or *hindmost*; *hithermost* (almost obsolete); *upermost*, *undermost*, *neithermost*, *innermost*, *outermost* or *utmost*. (2) Several

(2) Several adverbs are used in an elegant manner, to answer the purpose of degrees of comparison. There is great beauty in the use of the word *rather*, to express a small degree, or excess of a quality. "She is *rather* profuse in her expenses." Critical Review, No. 90. p. 43.

(3) The word *full* is likewise used to express a small excess of any quality. Thus we say, The tea is *full* weak, or *full* strong; but this is only a colloquial phrase.

(4) The preposition *with* is also sometimes used in conversation, to express a degree of quality something less than the greatest; as, they are *with* the widest.

(5) In some cases we find substantives, without any alterations, used for adjectives. "In the *flux condition* of human affairs." Bolingbroke on History, vol. I. p. 199. "A muslin shounce, made very full, would give a very agreeable *fibration air*." Pope.—Chance companions. Of this kind are, an alabaster column, a silver tankard, a grammar school, and most other compound nouns.

(6) In speaking to children, we sometimes use the third person singular, instead of the second; as, will *be* or *she* do it. The Germans use the third person plural when they speak the most respectfully.

(7) The pronouns *you* and *your* are sometimes used with little regard to their proper meaning; for the speaker has just as much interest in the case as those he addresses. This style is ostentatious, and doth not suit grave writing. "Not only *your men* of more refined and solid parts and learning, but even *your alchymist*, and *your fortuneteller*, will discover the secrets of their art in Homer and Virgil." Addison on Medals, p. 32.

(8) For want of a sufficient variety of personal pronouns of the third person, and their possessives, our language labors under an ambiguity, which is unknown in most others. "The eagle killed the hen, and eat her in *her own nest*.—He sent *him* to kill *his own father*." Nothing but the sense of the preceding sentences can determine what nest, the hen's or the eagle's, is meant in the former of these examples; or whose father, his that gave the order, or his that was to execute it, in the latter.

(9) When the words are separated by other prepositions, there is, sometimes, the same ambiguity. "He

was taking a view, from a window of St. Chad's cathedral, in Litchfield, where [i. e. in which] a party of the royalists had fortified themselves." Hume's History, vol. VI. p. 449. Quere, was it in the cathedral, or in the town, that the party of royalists were fortified?

(10) The demonstrative, *that*, is sometimes used very emphatically for *so much*, "But the circulation of things, occasioned by commerce, is not of *that* moment as the transplantation which human nature itself has undergone." Spirit of Nations, p. 22.

(11) Sometimes this same pronoun is elegantly used for *so great* or *such a*. "Some of them have gone to *that* height of extravagance, as to assert, that that performance had been immediately dictated by the Holy Ghost." Hume's History, vol. V. p. 288. In these cases, however, it should seem, that the common construction is generally preferable.

(12) *What* is sometimes put for *all the*, or words nearly equivalent. "*What* appearances of worth afterwards succeeded, were drawn from thence." Internal Policy of Great Britain, p. 196, i. e. all the appearances.

(13) The pronoun *one* has a plural number, when it is used as a substantive. "There are many whole waking thoughts are wholly employed in their sleeping *ones*." Addison.

(14) I shall here mention a remarkable ambiguity in the use of the word *one* when it is no pronoun. And it is such as, I think, cannot be avoided, except by a periphrasis, in any language. *I cannot find one of my books.* By these words I may either mean, that all the books are missing, or only one of them; but the tone of voice with which they are spoken, will easily distinguish in this case.

(15) The word *none* has generally, the force of a pronoun; as, "Where are the books? I have *none* of them." In this case it seems to be the same word with the adjective *no*; for where *no* is used with the substantive, *none* is used without it; for we say, *I have no books*; or, *I have none*. This word is used in a very peculiar sense. "*Israel would none of me.*" "*I like none of it,*" i. e. Would not have me at all; do not like it at all.

(16) There

(16) There is a remarkable ambiguity in the negative adjective *no*; and I do not see how it can be remedied in any language. If I say, "no laws are better than the English," it is only my known sentiments that can inform a person whether I mean to praise, or dispraise them.

(17) The word *so*, has, sometimes, the same meaning with *also*, *likewise*, *the same*; or rather it is equivalent to the universal pronoun *le* in French. *They are happy, we are not so*, i. e. *not happy*.

(18) We want a conjunction adapted to familiar style, equivalent to  *notwithstanding*. *For all that* seems to be too low and vulgar. "A word it was in the mouth of every one, but *for all that*, as to its precise and definite idea, this may still be a secret." Harris's three Treatises, p. 5.

(19) *In regard that*, is solemn and antiquated; because would do much better in the following sentence. "The French music is disliked by all other nations. It cannot be otherwise, *in regard that* the French profody differs from that of every other country in Europe." Smollet's Voltaire, vol. IX. p. 306.

(20) *Except* is far preferable to *other than*. "It admitted of no effectual cure, *other than* amputation."

(21) In using proper names, we generally have recourse to the adjective *one*, to particularize them. If I tell my friend, *I have seen one Mr. Roberts*, I suppose the Mr. Roberts that I mean to be a stranger to him; whereas, if I say, *I have seen Mr. Roberts*, I suppose him to be a person well known. Nothing supposes greater notoriety than to call a person simply Mr. It is therefore, great presumption, or affectation, in a writer, to prefix his name in this manner to any performance, as if all the world were well acquainted with his name and merit.

(22) A nice distinction of the sense is sometimes made by the use or omission of the article *a*. If I say, *He behaved with a little reverence*, my meaning is positive. If I say, *He behaved with little reverence*, my meaning is negative; and these two are by no means the same, or to be used in the same cases. By the former I rather praise a person, by the latter I dispraise him.

(23) For the sake of this distinction, which is a very useful one, we may better bear the seeming impropriety of

of this article *a* before nouns of number. When I say, *there were few men with him*, I speak diminutively, and mean to represent them as inconsiderable. Whereas, when I say, *there were a few men with him*, I evidently intend to make the most of them.

(24) Sometimes a nice distinction may be made in the sense by a regard to the position of the article only. When we say *half a crown*, we mean a piece of money of one half of the value of a crown; but when we say, *a half crown*, we mean a halfcrown piece, or a piece of metal, of a certain size, figure, &c. Two shillings and sixpence is *half a crown*, but not *a half crown*.

(25) The article *the* is often elegantly put, after the manner of the French, for the pronoun possessive; as, "he looks him full in *the* face," i. e. in his face. "That awful majesty, in whose presence they were to strike *the* forehead on the ground," i. e. their foreheads. Ferguson on Civil Society, p. 390.

(26) When a word is in such a state, as that it may, with very little impropriety, be considered, either as a proper, or a common name, the article *the* may be prefixed to it or not, at pleasure. "The Lord Darnly was the person in whom most men's wishes centered." Hume's History, vol. V. p. 87. *Lord Darnly* would have read just as well; and this form is more common, the word *Lord* being generally considered as part of the proper name.

(27) Different relations, and different senses, must be expressed by different prepositions; though in conjunction with the same verb or adjective. Thus we say, *to converse with a person upon a subject*, *in a house*, &c. We also say, *we are disappointed of a thing*, when we cannot get it; and *disappointed in it*, when we have it, and find it does not answer our expectations. But two different prepositions must be improper in the same construction, and in the same sentence. "The combat between thirty Britons, against twenty English." Smollet's Voltaire, vol. II. p. 292.

(28) In some cases, it is not possible to say to which of two prepositions the preference is to be given, as both are used promiscuously, and custom has not decided in favor of either of them. We say, *expert at*, and *expert in a thing*.

thing. "Expert at finding a remedy for his mistakes." Hume's History, vol. IV. p. 417. We say, *disapproved of*, and *disapproved by a person*. "Disapproved by our court." Swift. It is not improbable, but that, in time, these different constructions may be appropriated to different uses. All languages furnish examples of this kind, and the English as many as any other.

(29) The force of a preposition is implied in some words, particularly in the word *home*. When we say, *he went home*, we mean *to his own house*; yet in other constructions, this same word requires a preposition; for we say, *he went from home*. We say, *he is at home*, not *be is home*.

(30) Many writers affect to subjoin to any word the preposition with which it is compounded, or the idea of which it implies; in order to point out the relation of the words in a more distinct and definite manner, and to avoid the more indeterminate prepositions of and to; but general practice, and the idiom of the English tongue, seem to oppose the innovation. Thus many writers say, *averse from a thing*. "Averse from Venus." Pope. "The abhorrence against all other sects." Hume's History, vol. 4. p. 34. But other writers use *averse to it*, which seems more truly English. *Averse to any advice*. Swift.

(31) Several of our modern writers have leaned to the French idiom in the use of the preposition *of*, by applying it where the French use *de*, though the English idiom would require another preposition, or no preposition at all in the case; but no writer has departed more from the genius of the English tongue in this respect than Mr. Hume. "Richlieu profited of every circumstance, which the conjuncture afforded." "Hume's History, vol. 4. p. 241. We say, *profited by*. "He remembered him of the fable." Ib. vol. 5. p. 185. The great difficulty they find of fixing just sentiments. Ib. "The king of England provided of every supply." Ib. vol. 1. p. 206. In another place he writes, "Provide them in food and raiment." Ib. vol. 2. p. 65. The true English idiom seems to be *to provide with a thing*.

(32) It is agreeable to the same idiom, that of seems to be used instead of *for* in the following sentences. "The rain hath been falling of a long time." Maupertuis'

swis' Voyage. " It might perhaps have given me a greater taste of its antiquities." Addison. Of, in this place, occasions a real ambiguity in the sense. A taste of a thing, implies actual enjoyment of it; but a taste for it, only implies a capacity for enjoyment.

(33) In the following sentences, *on* or *upon* might very well be substituted for *of*. " Was totally dependent of the Papal crown." Hume's History. " Laid hold of." Ib. We also use *of* instead of *on* or *upon*, in the following familiar phrases, which occur chiefly in conversation; *to call of a person*, and *to wait of him*. *On* or *upon* is most correct.

(34) In some cases, a regard to the French idiom hath taught us to substitute *of* for *in*. " The great difficulty they found of fixing just sentiments." Hume's History. " Curious of antiquities."

(35) In a variety of cases, the preposition *of* seems to be superfluous in our language; and, in most of them, it has been derived to us from the French. Notwithstanding of the numerous panegyrics on the ancient English liberty."

(36) *Of* is often ambiguous, and would oftener be perceived to be so, did not the sense of the rest of the passage in which it occurs prevent that inconvenience. *The attack of the English*, naturally means *an attack made by the English, upon others*; but, in the following sentence, it means *an attack made upon the English*. " The two princes concerted the means of rendering ineffectual their common attack of the English."

(37) *Of* is used in a particular sense in the phrase, *he is of age*; the meaning of which is, *he is arrived at what is deemed the age of manhood*.

(38) Agreeable to the Latin and French idioms, the preposition *to* is sometimes used in conjunction with such words as, in those languages, govern the dative case; but this construction does not seem to suit the English language. " His servants ye are, *to whom ye obey*." Romans. " And *to* their general's voice they soon obey'd."

(39) *To* seems to be used instead of *for* in the following sentences. " Deciding law-suits *to* the northern counties." Hume's History. " A great change *to* the better." Hume's Essays. At least, *for* is more usual in this construction.

(40) *To*

(40) *To* seems to be used improperly, in the following sentences. “ His abhorrence *to* that superstitious figure.” Hume’s History, i. e. *of*. “ Thy prejudice *to* my cause.” Dryden, i. e. *against*. “ Consequent *to*.” Locke, i. e. *upon*.

(41) The place of the preposition *for*, might have been better supplied by other prepositions in the following sentences. “ The worship of this deity is extremely ridiculous, and therefore better adapted *for* the vulgar.” Smollet’s Voltaire, i. e. *to*. “ To die *for* thirst.” Addison, i. e. *of* or *by*. “ More than they *brought for* [of.]” D’Alembert.

(42) The preposition *with* seems to be used where *to* would have been more proper in the following sentences. “ Reconciling himself *with* the king.” Hume’s History. “ Those things which have the greatest resemblance *with* each other, differ the most.” Smollet’s Voltaire.

(43) Other prepositions had better have been substituted for *with*, in the following sentences. “ Glad *with* [at] the sight of hostile blood.” Dryden. “ He has as much reason to be angry *with* you as *with* him.” Preceptor.

(44) The preposition *with* and a personal pronoun, sometimes serve for a contraction of a clause of a sentence. “ The homunculus is endowed with the same locomotive powers and faculties *with us*.” Tristram Shandy, i. e. *the same faculties with which we are endowed*.

(45) The preposition *on* or *upon* seems to be used improperly in the following sentences. “ I thank you for helping me to an use (*of a medal*) that perhaps I should not have *brought on* [of.]” Addison. “ Censorious *upon* all his brethren.” Swift, perhaps *of*.

(46) We say, *to depend upon a thing*, but not *to premise upon it*. “ But this effect we may safely say, no one could beforehand have promised upon.” Hume’s History. It might have been, *have promised themselves*.

(47) The preposition *in* is sometimes used where the French use their *en*, but where some other prepositions would be more agreeable to the English idiom. “ He made a point of honor *in* [of] not departing from his enterprise.” Hume’s History. “ To be liable *in* a compensation.” Law Treats.

(48) The preposition *from* had better be changed in the following sentences. "He acquits me *from* mine iniquity." *Ibid.* better of. "Could have profited *from* [by] repeated experiences." Hume's History.

(49) *From* seems to be superfluous after *forbear*. "He could not forbear *from* appointing the Pope to be one of the godfathers." *Ibid.*

(50) The preposition *among* always implies a number of things; and, therefore, cannot be used in conjunction with the word *every*, which is in the singular number. "Which is found *among every species of liberty*." Hume.

(51) Sometimes the word *all* is emphatically put after a number of particulars comprehended under it.

"Her fury, her despair, her every gesture,  
Was nature's language *all*."—Voltaire.

"Ambition, interest, glory, *all concurred*."

Let. on Chiv.

(53) The word *such* is often placed after a number of particulars to which it particularly relates. "The figures of discourse, the pointed antithesis, the unnatural conceit, the jingle of words; *such* false ornaments were not employed by early writers." Hume's History.

(54) The preposition *of* will not bear to be separated from the noun which it either precedes or follows, without a disagreeable effect. "The ignorance of that age in mechanical arts, rendered *the progress* very slow, of this new invention."—Hume's History.

(55) Little explanatory circumstances are particularly awkward between a genitive case, and the word which usually follows it. "She began to extol *the farmer's*, as she called him, *excellent understanding*." Harriet Watson.

(56) It is a matter of indifference, with respect to the pronoun *one another*, whether the preposition *of* be placed between the two parts of it, or before them both. We may either say, *they were jealous* one of another, or *they were jealous* of one another.

### E L L I P S I S.

Ellipsis is the elegant omission of a word or words in a sentence.

This figure, judiciously managed, renders language concise, without obscuring the sense.

### EXAMPLES.

## E X A M P L E S.

*True Construction.*

1. God will reward the righteous and God will punish the wicked.

*Nominative omitted.*

God will reward the righteous and punish the wicked.

*True Construction.*

2. Give your heart to your Maker—give honor to your parents—and give your bosom to your friend.

*Verb omitted.*

Give your heart to your Maker—honor to your parents—and your bosom to your friend.

*True Construction.*

3. Here is the virtue which I admire and which I will endeavor to imitate.

*Relative omitted.*

Here is the virtue I admire and will endeavor to imitate.

## T R A N S P O S I T I O N.

Transposition or inversion, is the placing of words out of their natural order.

The order of words is either *natural* or *artificial*.

The *natural* order of words in a sentence is when they follow each other in the same manner as the conceptions of the mind.

*Artificial* order is when words are so arranged as to render the sentence harmonious and agreeable to the ear, without obscuring the sense.

## E X A M P L E S i n P R O S E.

*Natural Order.*

"We hear daily complaints of depopulation, in every great state where the people are sunk into voluptuousness, by prosperity and opulence."

*Artificial Order.*

In every great state, where the people, by prosperity and opulence, are sunk into voluptuousness, we hear daily complaints of depopulation.

In the foregoing example, the *artificial* order of the words, is as perspicuous as the *natural*, and more elegant and harmonious. But when an inversion serves to embarrass a period, it ought to be avoided, for perspicuity ought not to be sacrificed to any other ornament.

The following example appears to be faulty in this respect :

"Now

"Now from these evils, the love of letters, with that liberal cast of thought which they are naturally calculated to give, would, I am persuaded, be one powerful preservative."—*Fordyce, Ser. 8.*

*Corrected.*

I am persuaded that the love of letters, with that liberal cast of thought which they are naturally calculated to give, would be one powerful preservative from these evils.

P O E T R Y.

*Inverted Order.*

"Or southward far extend thy wond'ring eyes,  
Where fertile streams the garden'd vales divide ;  
And mid the peopled fields distinguished rise  
Virginian towers and Charleston's spiry pride."

Elegy on the Times.

*Natural Order.*

Or extend thy wondering eyes far southward, where fertile streams divide the garden'd vales ; and Virginian towers and Charleston's spiry pride rise distinguished amid the peopled fields.

A R R A N G E M E N T.

As the principal object to be considered in any composition, whether prose or verse, is perspicuity, and as this depends much on a proper arrangement of the members of a period ; it is necessary to lay down some general rules with respect to this point, and illustrate their propriety by examples of wrong arrangement.

Words, expressing ideas that are connected in the mind, ought to be placed as near together as possible.

The want of such connexion is obvious in the following examples.

"For the English are naturally fanciful, and very often disposed, by that gloominess of temper which is so frequent in our nation, to many wild notions, and visions, to which others are not liable." Spect. No. 419.

*Corrected.*

For the English are naturally fanciful, and by that gloominess of temper which is so frequent in our nation, are very often disposed to many wild notions and visions to which others are not so liable.

"The

"The same Lucumo, having afterwards attained the crown, with the name of Tarquin the ancient, by the favor of the people, did, that he might preserve their affection, choose out of their order a hundred Senators," &c.

"The same Lucumo having afterwards, by the favor of the people, attained the crown, with the name of Tarquin the ancient, did," &c.—Vertot.

2. A circumstance ought not to be placed between two capital members of a period; for this renders it doubtful, to which of the two members, the circumstance belongs. Witness the following example.

"Since this is too much to ask of freemen, nay of slaves, if his expectation be not answered, shall he form a lasting division upon such transient motives?"—Bolingbroke.

*Corrected.*

Since this is too much to ask of freemen, nay of slaves, shall he, if his expectations be not answered, form a lasting division upon such transient motives?

In this example it is doubtful, whether the circumstance in Italic, belong to the first or last member of the period; in the correction the ambiguity is removed.

3. A circumstance should be placed near the beginning of a period, rather than at or near the conclusion. The mind passes with pleasure from small to great objects; but the transition from great to small is disagreeable. For this reason, the closing member of a period ought to be the most important.

In this respect the following examples are exceptional.

"And although they may be and too often are drawn, by the temptations of youth and the opportunities of a large fortune, into some irregularities, when they come forward into the world; it is ever with reluctance, and compunction of mind, because their bias to virtue continues."

*Intelligencer, No. 9.*

"And although when they come forward into the world, they may be, and too often are drawn, by the temptations of youth, and the opportunities of a large fortune, into some irregularities; it is ever with reluctance and compunction of mind, because their bias to virtue continues."

In this example, the circumstance in Italics, is placed too late in the period, and renders the first division of it, flat and unimportant; in the correction, the circumstance is placed in the beginning of the period, and its harmony and dignity are not afterwards interrupted.

4. A number of circumstances ought not to be crowded together, but interspersed among the capital members of a period.

*Example.*

"It is likewise urged that there are, by computation, in this kingdom, above 10,000 persons, whose revenues," &c.—Swift.

*Corrected.*

"It is likewise urged that, in this kingdom, there are, by computation, above 10,000 persons, whose revenues," &c.

The two circumstances, *by computation*, and, *in this kingdom*, placed together, destroy the clearness and beauty of this period.

"They beheld, *with wonder*, *at court*, a young lady so intelligent, and who spoke the ancient languages with no less purity than grace."      *Essay on Women.*

"They beheld, with wonder, a young lady at court, who was so intelligent and spoke the ancient languages with no less purity than grace."

Perhaps the best arrangement would be, "With wonder they beheld," &c. "In England we meet with the three Seymours, sisters, nieces to a king and daughters to a protector, all celebrated for their learning, and for their elegant Latin verses, which were translated and repeated all over Europe.—Jane Gray, whose elevation to the throne was only a leap to the scaffold, and who read, before her death, in Greek, Plato's dialogue on the immortality of the soul."

One would imagine by the situation of the two circumstances, *before her death*, and *in Greek*, that her death was in Greek: It ought to be, who before her death, read in Greek, &c. The ellipsis also in the beginning of the period, rather serves to obscure the sense. "The three Seymours *were* sisters," &c. would be more perspicuous. Perhaps the greatest fault in Mr. Russell's style, is, a too frequent use of the ellipsis.

5. A pronoun ought to stand as near to its antecedent as possible. A wide separation of words so intimately connected, often renders the sense ambiguous.

"It is the custom of the Mahometans, if they see any printed or written paper upon the ground, to take it up and lay it aside carefully, as not knowing but it may contain some piece of their Alcoran." Spect. No. 85.

"It is the custom of the Mahometans, if they see, upon the ground, any printed or written paper, to take it up and lay it aside carefully," &c.

In this example, the construction of the sentence, leads us to imagine that the pronoun *it* refers to *ground*; whereas its antecedent is *paper*: And the nearer these stand to each other, the more easily does the mind comprehend the meaning of the author.

6. The members of a period ought if possible to be so arranged, that the mind will easily comprehend the meaning and the connexion as fast as the eye surveys the word. A suspension of thought, till the close of a period, is painful and embarrassing to the understanding. Witness the following.

*Example.*

"She again, who should not perceive herself prompted to a prudent and amiable demeanor, or guarded against the contrary, by those pictures of discretion and excellence on one hand, and of levity and worthlessness on the other, with which sentimental and moral writers abound, must be absolutely void of decency and reflection."

Fordyce, Sermon 3d.

*Corrected.*

"She again must be absolutely void of decency and reflection, who should not perceive herself prompted to a prudent and amiable demeanor, or guarded against the contrary, by those pictures of discretion and excellence on one hand, and of levity and worthlessness on the other, with which sentimental and moral writers abound."

In this example, the first word *she* is intimately connected with the last member of the period, *must be*, &c. and it is a task too painful for the mind to retain the first word till it arrives at the close, and at the same time comprehend the meaning of the intervening circumstances.

The arrangement in the correction renders the period smooth and perspicuous,

An

An elegant writer of the present day is guilty of the same fault, in the following example.

"The burning ardors and the tormenting jealousies of the Seraglio and the Haram, which have reigned so long in Asia and Africa, and which, in the southern parts of Europe, have scarcely given way to the difference of religion and civil establishment, are found, however, with an abatement of heat in the climate, to be more easily changed, in one latitude, into a temporary passion which engrosses the mind, without enfeebling it, and which excites to romantic achievements," &c. Ferguson's Essay on the History of Civil Society, Part 3. Sect. 1.

Here the capital members of the period, viz. *the burning ardors and the tormenting jealousies of the Seraglio and Haram*, are found to be more easily changed into a temporary passion, &c. are separated at such a great distance, and disjoined by such a number of intervening circumstances, as to perplex the reader and fatigued his mind by closely attending to the connexion of ideas.

It may also be remarked in general, that sentences ought not to close with adverbs, relatives, or participles. Little unimportant words; as, *to*, *for*, *with*, *it*, &c. close a period without force, and leave a feeble impression upon the mind. Important words, such as nouns, verbs, participles and adjectives, make the best figure in the conclusion of periods—they add dignity to the style, and energy to the sentiment.

## P U N C T U A T I O N.

*Abridged from DR. LOWTH.*

PUNCTUATION is the art of marking in writing the several pauses or rests between sentences and the parts of sentences.

As the several articulate sounds, the syllables and words, of which sentences consist, are marked by letters, so the pauses, between sentences and their parts, are marked by points.

The different degrees of connection between the parts of sentences, require a great variety of pauses of different lengths; yet, to express this variety, we use only four points. For this reason the doctrine of punctuation must necessarily be imperfect, and not reducible to precise rules.

But a few general remarks on this subject may be useful in directing the judgment of the learner.

The

The points used to make the pauses between sentences and their several parts, are the period, colon, semicolon, and comma. The proportional quantity of time between these may be, as, six, four, two and one.

The period is the whole sentence complete in itself, wanting nothing to make a full and perfect sense, and not connected in construction with a subsequent sentence.

The colon or member, is a chief constructive part, or greater division of a sentence.

The semicolon or half member, is a less constructive part or subdivision of a sentence or member.

A sentence or member is again subdivided into commas or segments, which are the least constructive sense of a sentence or member, in this way of considering it; for the next subdivision would be the resolution of it into phrases and words.

In order the more clearly to determine the proper application of the point which marks it, we must distinguish between an imperfect phrase, a simple sentence, and a compound sentence.

An imperfect phrase contains no assertion, or does not amount to a proposition or sentence.

A simple sentence has but one subject, and one finite verb.

A compounded sentence has more than one subject, or one finite verb, either expressed or understood; or it consists of two or more simple sentences connected together.

In a sentence, the subject and the verb may be each of them accompanied with several adjuncts; as the object, the end, the circumstance of time, place and manner, and the like: and this, either immediately, or mediately; that is, by being connected with something which is connected with some other; and so on.

If the several adjuncts affect the subject or the verb in a different manner, they are only so many imperfect phrases; and the sentence is simple.

A simple sentence admits of no point by which it may be divided, or distinguished into parts.

If the several adjuncts affect the verb in the same manner, they may be resolved into so many simple sentences; the sentence then becomes compounded, and it must be divided into its parts by points.

For, if there are several subjects belonging in the same manner to one verb, or several verbs belonging in the same manner to one subject, the subjects and verbs, are still to be accounted equal in number: for every verb must have its subject, and every subject its verb; and every one of the subjects or verbs, should or may have its point of distinction.

#### EXAMPLES.

"The passion for praise produces excellent effects in women of sense." Addison, Spect. No. 73. In this sentence *passion*

is the subject, and produces the verb: Each of which is accompanied and connected with its adjuncts. The subject is not passion in general, but a particular passion determined by its adjunct of specification, as we may call it, the passion *for praise*. So likewise the verb is immediately connected with its object, *excellent effects*; and mediately, that is, by the intervention of the word *effects*, with *women*, the subject in which these effects are produced; which again is connected with its adjunct of specification, for it is not meant of women in general, but of women *of sense* only. Lastly, it is to be observed, that the verb is connected with each of the several adjuncts in a different manner; namely, with *effects*, as the object; with *women*, as the subject of them; with *sense*, as the quality or characteristic of those women. The adjuncts therefore are only so many imperfect phrases; the sentence is a simple sentence, and admits of no point by which it may be distinguished into parts.

"The passion for praise, which is so very vehement in the fair sex, produces excellent effects in women of sense." Here a new verb is introduced, accompanied with adjuncts of its own; and the subject is repeated by the relative pronoun *which*. It now becomes a compounded sentence, made up of two simple sentences, one of which is inserted in the middle of the other; it must therefore be distinguished into its component parts by a point placed on each side of the additional sentence.

"How many instances have we [in the fair sex] of chastity, fidelity, devotion? How many ladies distinguish themselves by the education of their children, care of their family, and love of their husbands; which are the great qualities and achievements of womankind; as the making of war, the carrying on of traffic, the administration of justice, are those by which men grow famous, and get themselves a name." —Ibid.

In the first of these two sentences, the adjuncts *chastity*, *fidelity*, *devotion*, are connected with the verb by the word *instances* in the same manner, and in effect make so many distinct sentences: "How many instances have we of chastity? How many instances have we of fidelity? How many instances have we of devotion?" They must therefore be separated from one another by a point. The same may be said of the adjuncts, "education of their children," &c. in the former part of the next sentence; as likewise of the several subjects, "the making of war," &c. in the latter part, which have in effect each their verb; for each of these "is an achievement by which men grow famous."

As sentences themselves are divided into simple and compounded, so the members of sentences may be divided into simple and compounded members: for whole sentences, whether compounded or uncompounded, may become members of other sentences, by means of some additional connexion.

Simple

Simple members of sentences, closely connected together in one compounded member, or sentence, are distinguished or separated by a comma; as in the foregoing examples.

So likewise, the case absolute; nouns in opposition, when consisting of many terms; the participle with something depending on it, are to be distinguished by the comma; for they may be resolved into simple members.

When an address is made to a person, the noun, answering to the vocative case in Latin, is distinguished by a comma.

#### EXAMPLES.

" This said, he formed thee, Adam; thee, O man, dust of the ground."

" Now morn, her rosy steps in th' eastern clime,  
Advancing, sow'd the earth with orient pearl."

Milton.

Two nouns, or two adjectives, connected by a single copulative or disjunctive, are not separated by a point; but when there are more than two, or where the conjunction is understood, they must be distinguished by a comma.

Simple members, connected by relatives and comparatives, are for the most part distinguished by a comma; but when the members are short in comparative sentences, and when two members are closely connected by a relative restraining the general notion of the antecedent to a particular sense, the pause becomes almost insensible, and the comma is better omitted.

#### EXAMPLES.

" Raptures, transports, and ecstacies, are the rewards which they confer; sighs and tears, prayers and broken hearts, are the offerings which are paid to them." Addison, *Ibid.*

" Gods partial, changeful, passionate, unjust,  
Whose attributes were rage, revenge or lust." Pope.

" What is sweeter than honey? and what is stronger than a lion?"

A circumstance of importance, though no more than an imperfect phrase, may be set off with a comma on each side, to give it greater force and distinction.

#### EXAMPLE.

" The principle may be defective or faulty; but the consequences it produces are so good, that, for the benefit of mankind, it ought not to be extinguished." — Addison, *Ibid.*

A member of a sentence, whether simple or compounded, that requires a greater pause than a comma, yet does not of itself make a complete sentence, but is followed by something closely depending on it, may be distinguished by a semicolon.

#### EXAMPLE.

" But as this passion for admiration, when it works according to reason, improves the beautiful part of our species in every thing

thing that is laudable; so nothing is more destructive to them, when it is governed by vanity and folly."—Addison, *Ibid.*

Here the whole sentence is divided into two parts by the semicolon; each of which parts is a compounded member, divided into its simple members by the comma.

A member of a sentence, whether simple or compounded, which of itself would make a complete sentence, and so requires a greater pause than a semicolon, yet is followed by an additional part, making a more full and perfect sense, may be distinguished by a colon.

#### E X A M P L E.

"Were all books reduced to their quintessence, many a bulky author would make his appearance in a penny paper: There would be scarce any such thing in nature as a folio: The works of an age would be contained on a few shelves: Not to mention millions of volumes, that would be utterly annihilated."

Addison, *Spect.* No. 124.

Here the whole sentence is divided into four parts by colons: The first and last of which are compounded members, each divided by a comma; the second and third are simple members.

When a semicolon has preceded, and a greater pause is still necessary, a colon may be employed, though the sentence be incomplete.

The colon is also commonly used, when an example, or a speech is introduced.

When a sentence is so far perfectly finished, as not to be connected in construction with the following sentence, it is marked with a period.

In all cases, the proportion of the several points in respect to one another, is rather to be regarded, than their supposed precise quantity, or proper office, when taken separately.

Beside the points, which mark the pauses in discourse, there are others which denote a different modulation of the voice in corresponding with the sense. These are

The interrogation point,	{	thus	}
The exclamation point,			

marked { }

The parenthesis,

The interrogation and exclamation points are sufficiently explained by their names: They are indeterminate as to their quantity or time, and may be equivalent in that respect to a semicolon, a colon, or a period, as the sense requires. They mark an elevation of the voice.

The parenthesis incloses in the body of a sentence a member inserted into it, which is neither necessary to the sense, nor at all affects the construction. It makes a moderate depression of the voice, with a pause greater than a comma.

